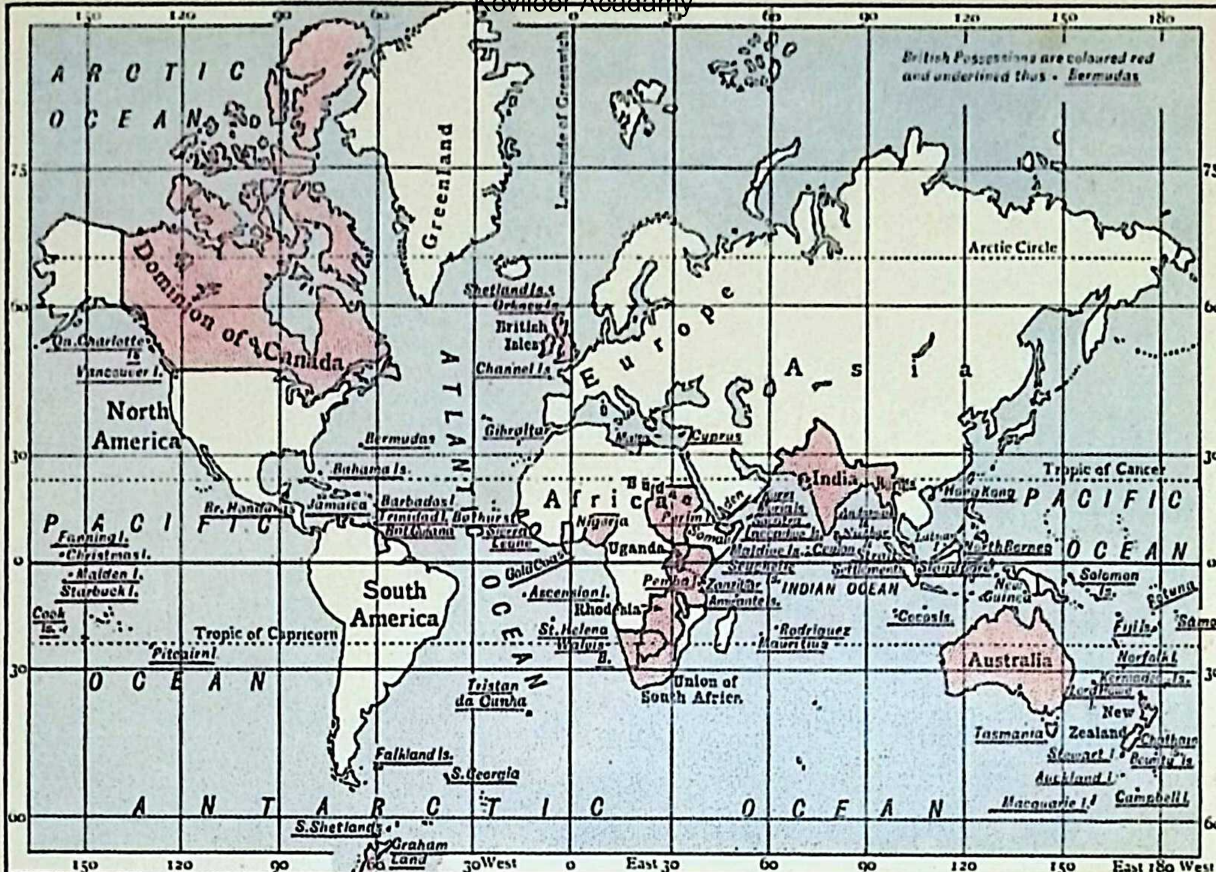
THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

P. H. & A. C. KERR



Longmans & Co. London & New York

THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

BY

P. H. AND A. C. KERR

WITH 4 COLOURED ILLUSTRATIONS, 4 COLOURED MAPS AND 62 MAPS AND OTHER ILLUSTRATIONS

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39 PATERNOSTER ROW, LONDON, E.C.4
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114 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK
221 EAST 20TH STREET, CHICAGO
88 TREMONT STREET, BOSTON

LONGMANS, GREEN AND CO.
215 VICTORIA STREET, TORONTO

First published under the title
THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE
April 1911

New Impressions: *November* 1911; *May* 1912; *January* 1914; *July* 1915; *September* 1917; *May* 1918; *January* 1919.

New Edition: *August* 1921.

New Impressions: *July* 1925; *March* 1926; *January* 1927; *September* 1931; *December* 1932.

New and Revised Edition, published under the title
THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH
July 1937

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THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

PART I

PERIOD OF TRAINING

CHAPTER I

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

"The land we from our fathers had in trust,
And to our children will transmit or die:
This is our maxim, this our piety;
And God and nature say that it is just."
WORDSWORTH.

1. We hear a great deal nowadays about the British Commonwealth; how great it is, how it is spread all over the face of the world, so that the sun is always shining on some part of it, and we feel very proud of belonging to it. But do we ever stop to think what we really mean by it? What is the British Commonwealth? What is it made up of, and how did it ever come to be? What is it going to be in the future? We know a little about it; we know that it consists of a lot of different countries in different parts of the world, and that they are all joined in some way or another, and all have the same king. But do we know which are the countries that are

joined together, or how they came to be joined, or what it is that keeps them together now? All these things we must know, if we are to understand about the British Commonwealth.

2. Look at the map at the beginning of the book and you will see that a large part of it is painted red; that is the British Commonwealth. There is huge Canada; there is South Africa; there is Australia, a continent in herself, and close beside her New Zealand; there is India, and there are many other countries, and islands more than you can count; and in the middle is tiny England, which is the Mother-country of them all. They are all one big family. England is the Mother-land and they are the children. They are linked to one another by the sea, and together they make up the British Commonwealth.

3. You know how, in a real family, the members are all different; some are big and old and like to walk by themselves, and some are still small and want to hold their mother's hand. So it is with the Commonwealth. Some of England's children are quite grown up and can not only manage their own affairs, but can take their share in the conduct of the Empire's business. Some of them she still holds by the hand. But, whatever their age, they are all fond of their Mother and of each other, and they all stand together whenever danger threatens or they have a common work to do.

4. We have said that all the countries of the Commonwealth are different. Now we are not going to try to understand all the differences, for there are so many that we should only get muddled, but there

is one we must notice, for it divides the countries into two big sets. Look at the map at the beginning, and you will see that some of the red-painted places are at the top, and some at the bottom, and some in the middle of the page. You know that in the middle of the map is the Equator, and that places in the Tropics, as the parts of the world near the Equator are called, are generally very hot and inhabited chiefly by brown and black races; and you know too that at the very top and bottom of the map are the Poles and the Arctic regions, where nobody lives at all. But in between the two Arctic circles and the Tropics are the temperate zones, where the climate is mild and white people live and work and make their homes.

5. Now look at the countries painted red which lie within these temperate zones. In the northern half of the map are the British Isles—the heart of the Empire—which are altogether in the temperate zone. Then comes Canada, so large that a great part of it stretches up into the Arctic regions, and Newfoundland close beside it. In the south temperate zone you will find Australia and South Africa, though parts of both of them stretch up into the Tropics. And, lastly, there is New Zealand, which, like the British Isles, is altogether in the temperate zone. These five countries are the most important parts of the Commonwealth. England, as you know, is the Mother-country, and Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand are the Dominions, as her grown-up daughters are called. In 1922 the Irish Free State also became a Dominion. They all lie mostly in the

temperate zones, and are inhabited by large numbers of white people, and they are all self-governing states. That is to say, they conduct their own affairs in their own way, which, as we shall see, the other parts of the Commonwealth have not yet learnt to do. But it is England who still principally manages the outside affairs of the whole Commonwealth and its dealings with foreign nations, though the Dominions are yearly taking a larger share in the conduct of foreign affairs and the cost of defence.

6. The other parts of the Empire, except some little islands, lie inside the Tropics. They are mostly inhabited by black and brown people, who are in various stages of growth towards self-government. Only a few white people live in them, as missionaries, or officials of the Government, or traders and engineers, or foremen on railways and harbours. These countries can be divided into three groups. In the first group are India (a great country, with so many inhabitants that they make up one-sixth of all the people in the world), Burma, the island of Ceylon, and the Malay Peninsula in Asia. In the second group are the Sudan, Uganda, Tanganyika, Kenya, Nyasaland, the Gold Coast, and Nigeria in Africa; and in the third group are the West Indies and Guiana. Besides these there are hundreds of islands and smaller pieces of land scattered over the whole world, but we cannot give all their names here. All these wide lands form part of the Empire. Some of them, like India, are rapidly approaching full self-government. Others, like the central parts of Africa, are at a more primitive stage of development and are

still under the direct control of Great Britain or the Dominions.

7. But the most important point to be noted about the British Commonwealth is that it is not an Empire in the old-fashioned sense of the word, that is to say, a number of races and peoples held together, largely by force, under a strong centralised government. It is rather an association of peoples united by their common love of liberty, justice, and self-government, and by political institutions which protect their rights against attack both from within and without. The Empire has no strong central government. Its only outward bond of unity is the Crown. Its real foundation is the mutual affection of its peoples for one another and for the ideals of life and government which they support. As we shall show later, the people, first of England and later of the rest of the Empire, have been safe and prosperous just in proportion as they were faithful to the ideals and principles upon which their Commonwealth was founded. And the history of the Empire is largely concerned with the growth of freedom and self-government within its boundaries, and with the attempts of less free and progressive peoples to interfere with that freedom and to prevent it spreading over the world.

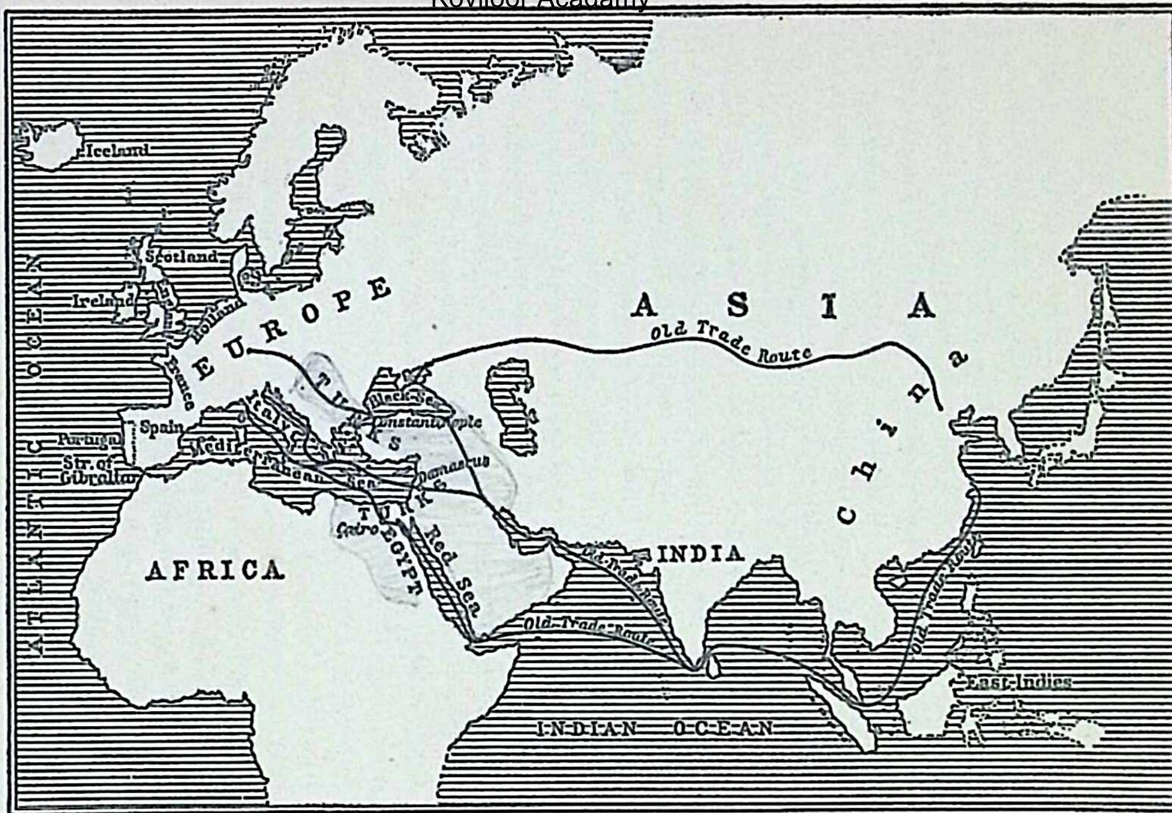
CHAPTER II

THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

1. We have now found out something about what we mean when we talk of the British Commonwealth. We have learnt that it is a great family of States, made up of five self-governing peoples—England, the Mother-country, and her grown-up daughter Dominions—and a great number of other races and peoples who are only beginning to learn how to manage their own affairs, united by a common love of one another and of their free institutions and civilisation. This great Empire did not come into being all at once. It was very small to begin with, but it gradually grew larger and greater, until to-day it covers one-fifth of all the land on the globe, and contains nearly one-quarter of the human race.

2. If we are to understand properly how the Empire was built up we must begin by going back a long way in history, to the time, five hundred years ago, when England had no possessions beyond the sea, and when America, South Africa, and Australia had not even been heard of. At that time people only knew about Europe, and the north of Africa, and Asia. They had no idea that the earth was round, or that there were great continents full of gold and silver, corn and wood, coal and iron, and other riches on the other side of the globe. They had no railways or motors to help them to move about, or newspapers and telegraphs and radio to bring news of foreign

THE WORLD BEFORE THE AGE OF DISCOVERY



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countries, and even the roads were bad, and dangerous because of robbers and brigands. Their ships, too, were only tiny cockle-shells driven headlong before the wind, and often swallowed up by the waves or dashed to pieces on the rocks. So that travel, which is easy enough now when we have express trains and fast steamers and aeroplanes, and fine hotels and news of what is going on at home at every stopping-place, was difficult and dangerous then, and naturally people were inclined to stay at home.

3. But about this time, five hundred years ago, the people of Europe seemed to wake up. The Renaissance had opened men's minds to new ideas and to new needs. They wished to make their houses more comfortable, and their clothes more beautiful, and their feasts more splendid; so a great demand arose for gorgeous stuffs, and gold, and jewels, and all sorts of fruits and spices which were not to be found in their own countries, but had to be brought from other lands far away. Then inventions and discoveries were made. People learnt that the earth was round, and that if you only travelled long enough in one direction you would come back to the place you started from. Another famous discovery was the mariner's compass, which told the sailors how to guide their ships, so that they no longer had to creep along the shore, but could venture boldly out across the ocean. Then people began to build bigger ships, and sailors and merchants set forth in them to bring back the stuffs, and fruits, and jewels, for which the people of Europe were ready to pay high prices.

4. Most of these valuable articles were brought

from the far-away countries of the East, like India and China. There had always been a good deal of trade between Europe and the countries of Asia, and for some time it had been rapidly increasing. As you will see on the map, there were three or four great trade routes by which the merchants travelled backwards and forwards. But these were difficult and dangerous, and the merchants were anxious to find new and safer roads. About this time too (1450) a fierce people called the Ottoman Turks rose up and attacked and took the city of Constantinople. The Turks made the journey to the East by the old routes even more dangerous. So the merchants began to promise great rewards to anyone who could find a new way to India and China, or discover new countries from which they could obtain their goods. These promises naturally aroused the men who loved an exciting, adventurous, roving life, and they all began to think of making their fortunes by exploration. So off they set with their new compasses and their new ships on voyages of discovery—some to find new lands, some to find new ways to the old ones; and bit by bit they explored the whole face of the world, till they could draw the map very much as we know it now.

5. The first people to be stirred by the new spirit of adventure, and to set out on these voyages, were the Portuguese and the Spaniards. As you can see on the map, Portugal and Spain are on the very outside corner of Europe, so it was natural that they should lead the way out across the Atlantic Ocean, and down the coast of Africa. Besides, when the old trade routes were blocked, the ships which had been

carrying goods over the Mediterranean from the East to Italy, France, and Spain, had nothing to carry so long as they remained in the Mediterranean, and they too had to sail out of the Straits of Gibraltar, and make the Portuguese and Spanish ports the starting-places for their new expeditions.

6. Prince Henry of Portugal was the first powerful man to set about exploring the world. His great object was to discover new lands for Portugal, and to send missionaries to convert the heathen and make them Christians. Many expeditions were sent out by Prince Henry, and though by 1460, when he died, they had not made any great discoveries, he had set the example for others to follow.

7. The period when all this took place lasted about a hundred and fifty years, from 1450 till nearly 1600, and it is called the Age of Discovery. We will now see how, by degrees, the world was explored, and what part each of the different nations took in the new discoveries.

CHAPTER III

THE PORTUGUESE AND SPANISH DISCOVERIES

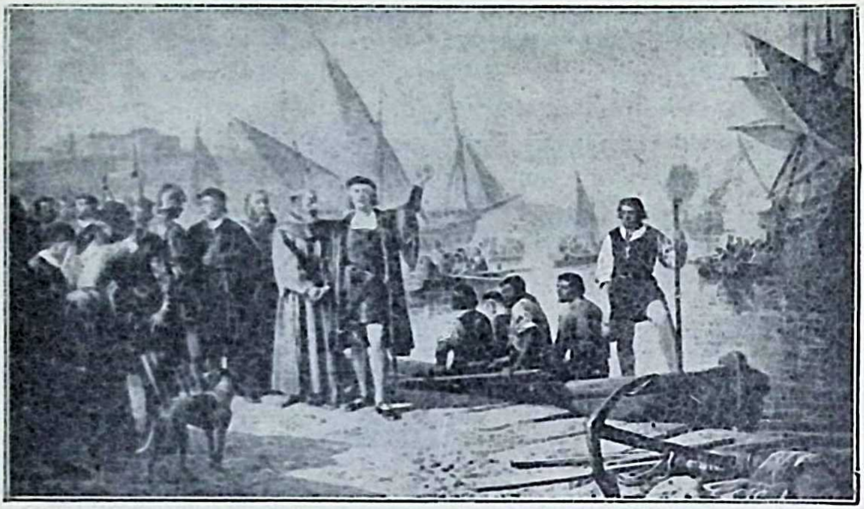
1. After the Turks had closed the old route to the Far East through Asia, the Portuguese began to work hard to find a new road to India by sea. To begin with, they explored down the coast of Africa. In 1486 Bartholomew Diaz had sailed as far South as the Cape, which he named the Cape of Storms. Eleven years later Vasco da Gama passed this Cape

once more, and sailed on and on, until at last he reached India, and so found the new way to the East for which everybody had been anxiously waiting. People were so delighted that the Cape of Storms was renamed the Cape of Good Hope. South Africa is reminded of that famous voyage by some of her other names as well. Natal was given its name by Vasco da Gama, who passed it on Christmas Day. Algoa Bay (Port Elizabeth) means the stopping-place on the way to Goa, and Delagoa means the stopping-place on the way from Goa; for Goa was the first possession of the Portuguese in India, and it still belongs to them.



2. It was not long before the Spaniards began to be stirred by the fever of exploration. They too wanted to reach the Indies, but, as the Portuguese had gone East, they started out in the other direction. Christopher Columbus, a sailor from Genoa, said that if the world was round, it ought to be just as easy to

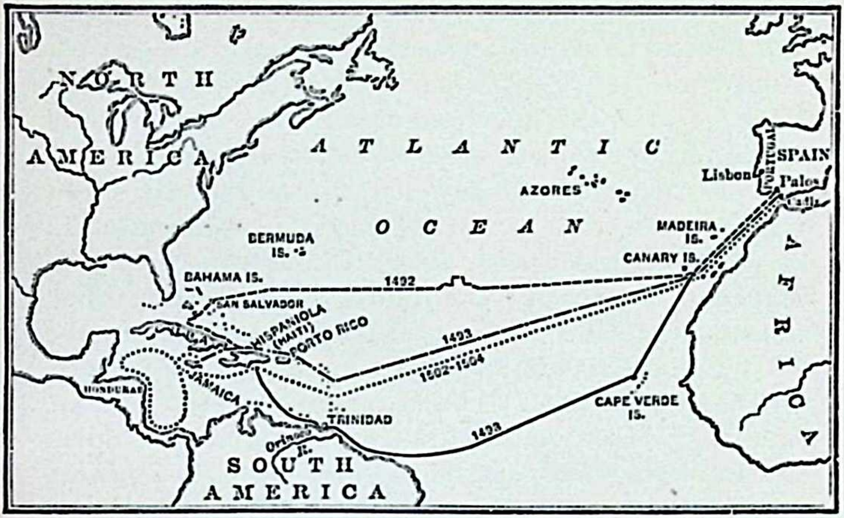
reach the Indies by going West as by going East, and he was quite sure that if somebody bold enough sailed due West from Spain he would reach them. For a long time no one would listen to him or give him ships; but he was so certain that he was right that he would not give up, and at last he persuaded the King of



The Departure of Columbus from Palos

Spain to help him, and on August 3, 1492, six years after Diaz had discovered the Cape of Good Hope, he joyfully set sail. On and on he went for seventy days, and still there was no sign of land. His crew became disheartened, and threatened to throw him overboard and go back to Spain; but he begged them to persevere for a few days more, and one morning, when they looked out, there was the land in front of them.

You can imagine their delight. They found they had reached a group of islands. Columbus thought they were part of India, and called the islands the Indies, and went back to Spain with the news. Later on he made another voyage and landed in America, and found that instead of reaching India he had discovered

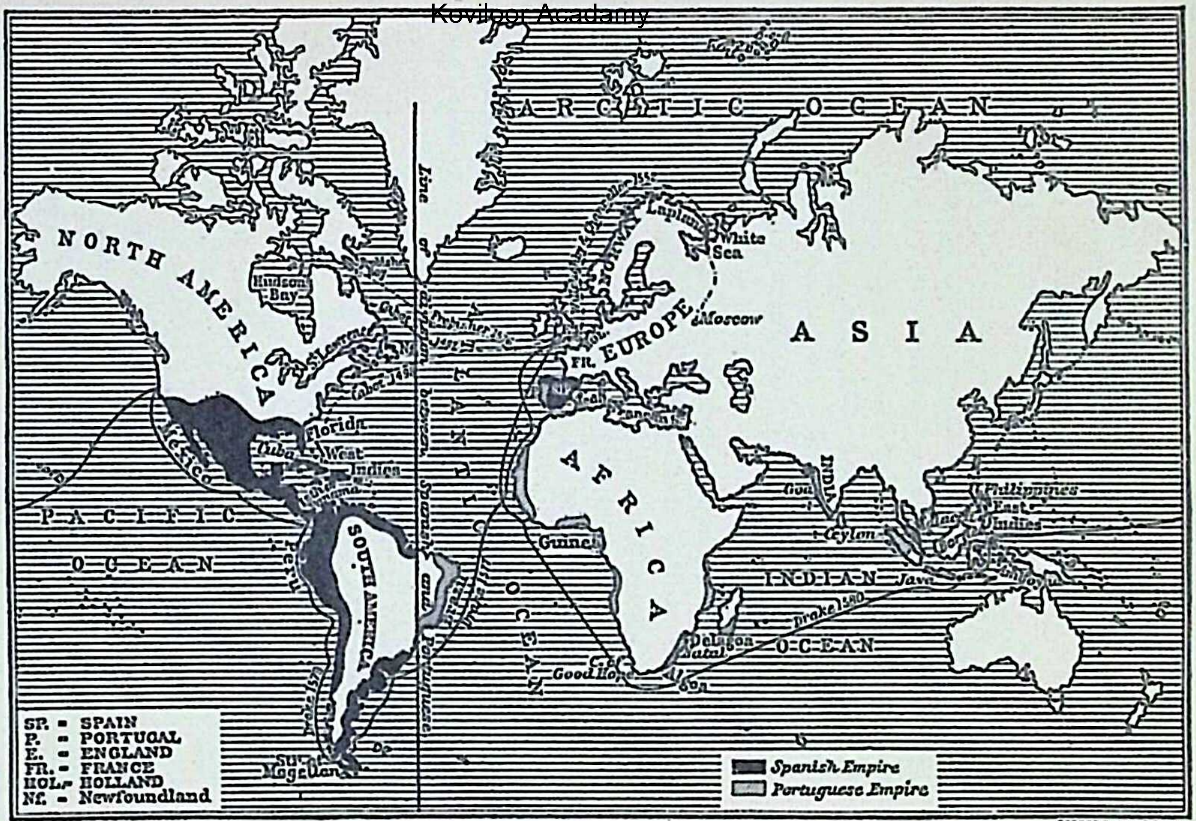


MAP OF COLUMBUS'S VOYAGES

a huge new continent of which he had never dreamt. So the islands he had first found were renamed the West Indies, to distinguish them from the real Indies in the East. Columbus made several other voyages, in the course of which he landed in Jamaica, and Trinidad, and at different places on the coast of America. He died in 1506.

3. So to the Portuguese belongs the credit of

having discovered South Africa, and of having reached India by sea, and to the Spaniards belongs the credit of having discovered America. After the news of the success of Bartholomew Diaz, Vasco da Gama, and Christopher Columbus had been spread about, many other Portuguese and Spaniards began to set forth on voyages of discovery and adventure. The later Portuguese explorers followed the example of Columbus, and instead of sailing along the coast of Africa struck boldly across the Atlantic. In 1500 they visited Brazil, and in the next year Corte Real sailed all the way along the eastern coast of North America; while in 1520, Magellan and his companions actually sailed round the world. They followed down the eastern coast of South America, passed through the Straits of Magellan at the southernmost point, which they named after their captain, crossed the Pacific to the East Indian Islands, like Borneo and the Philippines, where Magellan was killed in a fight with the natives, and from there the expedition sailed across the Indian Ocean to the Cape, and so reached Portugal again up the west coast of Africa. The voyage took nearly three years, and when we remember the tiny ships they sailed in, and that they had no maps to guide them and show them when they were near rocks or currents, or where they could find ports to get fresh food and water, we may well think it was one of the most wonderful adventures in the history of the world. The fame of this adventure belongs to both Spain and Portugal, for though Magellan was a Portuguese, it was the Spanish king who gave him the ships and money for the expedition.



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4. The Portuguese went on exploring and looking for new lands to trade with all through the sixteenth century, until at the end they had many valuable possessions. The chief of these were Brazil in South America, Goa in India, Malacca in the East Indies, and some settlements along the east coast of Africa. Portugal valued these possessions mostly because of her enormous trade with them. She was too small a country to try to conquer them, and govern the people who lived in them. So she made them trading stations, and her Empire was really a great trading Empire.

5. Many Spaniards, too, set out on voyages of discovery, mainly westwards. Florida was found in 1509, and Cuba in 1511. The Pacific Ocean was seen by white men for the first time in 1513, when Balboa crossed the narrow isthmus that separates North and South America, and walking into the water up to his waist, in full armour, "took possession of that ocean in the name of the king, his master, and vowed to defend it with these arms against all enemies." Once the Spaniards had set foot on the mainland it was not long before they seized a great part of it. A few years later the great country of Mexico to the north of the isthmus was conquered by Cortes, and in 1533 Pizarro invaded and took possession of Peru, on the western side of South America, to the south. So by the middle of the fifteenth century Spain, as well as Portugal, had won a great empire in the New World. Her chief possessions were the West Indies, Peru in South America, and Mexico in Central America. Spain was a powerful kingdom, and so, unlike Por-

tugal, she conquered these countries thoroughly, and gave them a very strict government. The Spanish Governors then laid heavy taxes on them, and sent great ships full of treasure back to Spain.

6. So we see that as the outcome of the early explorations two great empires had been built up. Spain had founded a strong military empire in the West, and Portugal a great trading empire mainly in the East. But, as we saw, both Spain and Portugal discovered Brazil in the same year, and they soon began to dispute about which was to have it, so they asked the Pope to decide between them. The Pope drew a line down the map through the Atlantic, which you will see in the map on p. 15, and gave the Portuguese all the land east of that line, along the coast of Africa and towards India; and to the Spaniards he gave all the lands and islands to the west of that line. Later on the line was moved a little so that Brazil was added to the Portuguese Empire, and in the end became the most important part of it.

CHAPTER IV

ENGLAND AND THE NEW WORLD

"'Not unto us,'
Cried Drake, 'not unto us—but unto Him
Who made the sea, belongs our England now!
Pray God that heart and mind and soul we prove
Worthy among the nations of this hour
And this great victory, whose ocean fame
Shall wash the world with thunder till that day
When there is no more sea, and the strong cliffs
Pass like a smoke, and the last peal of it
Sounds thro' the trumpet.'" [1]—ALFRED NOYES, *Drake*.

1. THE northern peoples of Europe were slower than the Spaniards and the Portuguese in beginning to explore, for they had had no share in the Mediterranean trade, and so were less affected when the trade routes to the East were closed by the Turks. But the news of the exciting adventures and the rich discoveries of the explorers soon spread over Europe, and the other nations began to long to share in them. The first to follow the example of the Spaniards and the Portuguese were the English, and once they started, they quickly took a leading place, for they had several advantages in the struggle for the lands and trade of the New World.

2. If a country was to take a successful part in the struggle for expansion, it had first to make sure that it was safe at home. There is no use in starting enterprises across the sea, if you leave the door open for your enemy to attack you at home. While Portugal, and Spain, and France, and Holland were

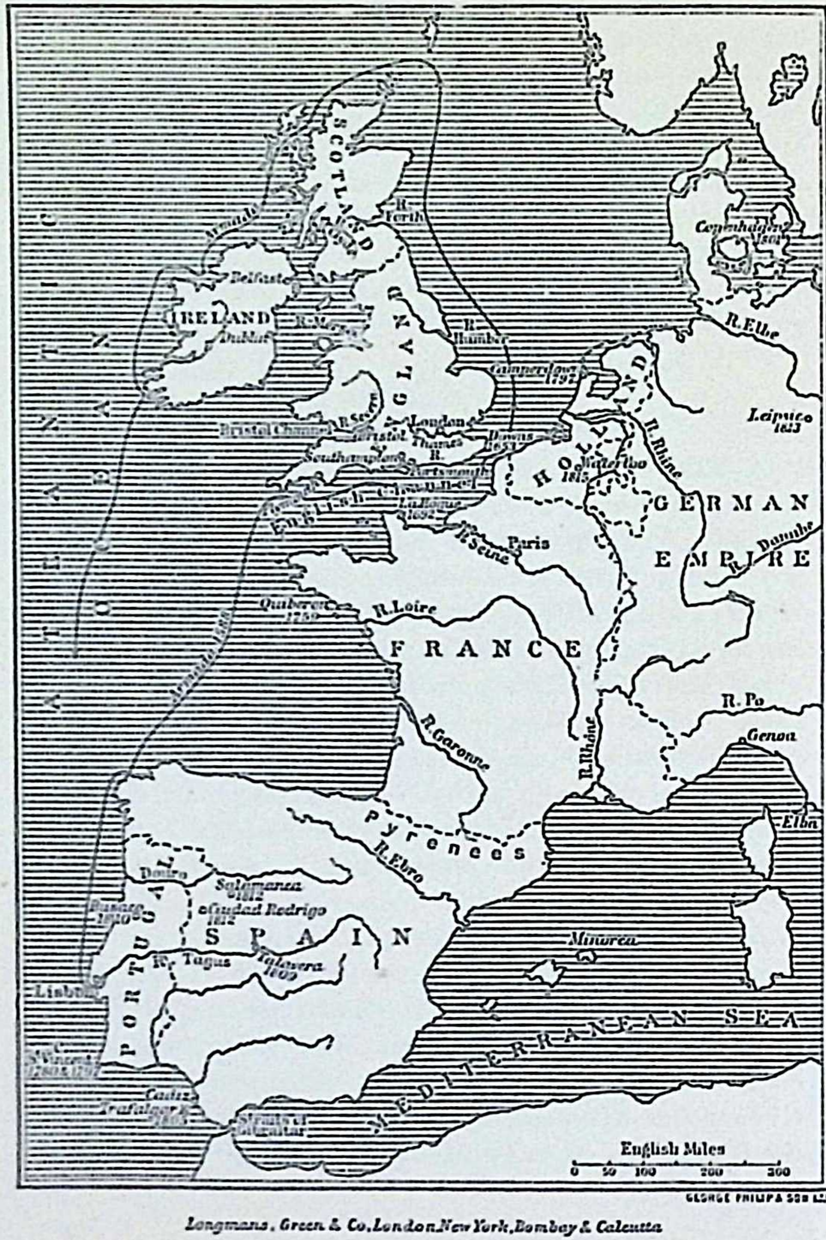
[1] By kind permission of Messrs. William Blackwood and Sons.

trying to win lands in the New World, they had also to defend miles and miles of their own boundaries in the Old World, to prevent their next-door neighbours from stepping over them. But England was saved from all this; her boundary was the sea, and she knew that no foreign foes could step across it, unless they were strong enough to build a bigger fleet than her own and win command of the sea. As Shakespeare says—

> ". . . England hedged in with the main,
> That water-walled bulwark, still secure
> And confident from foreign purposes."

3. The sea is a good boundary in another way; for besides being a strong wall to keep out enemies, it is the great open road which leads all round the world and joins all countries to one another. No country can be really great if it is shut up quite by itself. Its people must be able to communicate with other peoples, to learn from them and to trade with them. That is why every great country must have good rivers and seaports, for they are the avenues and gates opening on to the highways of the sea. England is very rich in rivers and seaports. She has first of all the Thames, leading right into the heart of the south country; then comes the Bristol Channel and the Severn, which open up the south-west; and there are many smaller entries, like the Humber and the Mersey, which serve the north of England. In Scotland the Firths of Forth and Clyde act as great entries from East and West. Besides these great river roadways, there are many fine harbours, like Southampton and Plymouth, all round the British

England and Western Europe at the End of the Sixteenth Century



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coast, so that when the English began to think of exploration, they found that the road to the New World started from their very doors.

4. Then England had an advantage in her climate. A very hot climate affects a people's habits and character, and makes them lazy and disinclined to move or start on great enterprises; and, on the other hand, in very cold countries, people have to spend a great deal of the year indoors, when the earth and the rivers and lakes are frozen hard. The climate of England, however, is neither very hot nor very cold. It is one of the most temperate in the world. It is never too hot in the summer, and the ground and lakes are seldom frozen for more than a few days in the winter. So the English people became strong and hardy in the cool, damp atmosphere of their islands, and were energetic, because they were never forced to stop work during any part of the year.

5. Then they had another advantage. The seas round the British Isles are shallow waters full of valuable fish, and a great many of the people who lived along the coast spent their lives in fishing. They were therefore accustomed to sailing across the seas, and were ready to join in the voyages to the New World as soon as it had been discovered. The English fishermen, too, were of the greatest value in manning the English navy; for as a writer of those days, called Hakluyt, says, they were "able to enforce themselves into the rigour of the stern and uncouth northern seas, and to make trial of the swelling waves and boisterous winds which there commonly do surge and blow."

6. So you see what great advantages England derived from being an island. Her people were used to the sea, and had learnt to understand and to love it; they were hardy, independent, and daring; they knew how to build good ships, and how to sail them in the roughest seas; and so in time they became the greatest sailors in the world. All these advantages led to another and still greater advantage. The unfortunate peoples of the continent of Europe were continually harried by the armies of kings and feudal barons, and had to devote all their energies to protecting themselves from armed attack. But the sea and their ships protected the English from just such dangers, and they were able to turn their attention to devising a better and a freer system of government than any which had existed before. The English were the first to invent trial by jury, and government by a parliament. Trial by jury meant that all the subjects of the English king were fairly and justly treated in the courts of law; they were certain to be punished if they had done wrong, and were equally sure of protection if nobles and other powerful men tried to ill-use them. Government by parliament meant that the king had to give up taxing his subjects as he liked, and to govern the country in accordance with the will of the people. Parliament has steadily grown more and more powerful, until to-day it governs the country directly itself. When you remember that in these days the people in other lands were heavily taxed by kings, and were tyrannised over by nobles, and often could not obtain protection and justice in the courts of law, because the judges

were harsh and cruel, you will see how fortunate the English were in being left free to devise a good system of government for themselves. This system of government, which allows all British subjects to lead free, safe, and peaceful lives, has been transplanted all over the Empire. As we shall see, most of the great wars of the Empire have been fought to save it from being upset by foreign kings and armies.

7. But though England was an island it was not cut off from Europe, which was the centre of knowledge and learning. The English Channel was a barrier to the armies of England's enemies; but it was not a barrier to trade or books, or wise men. Moreover, in those days the great rivers like the Seine and the Rhine were the chief trade routes, and these all pointed in the direction of England. So that while the English were more free and independent than any other people, they were able to learn all about what was going on in other countries, and were therefore ready to take their part in making further discoveries in the New World when the opportunity to do so arose. And, as we shall see later, the exploration of the New World changed the whole position of England. Before the discovery of America she was a little island on the edge of civilised Europe, but afterwards, as the map at the beginning shows, she occupied a central position in the world.

CHAPTER V

THE ENGLISH EXPLORERS AND THE WAR WITH SPAIN[1]

1. The sixteenth century has been called the period of Training, because, during it, the English began to leave their own islands and take to a seafaring life, and so to prepare themselves for the struggles later on, out of which the British Commonwealth was to grow. During this time, as we have seen, they explored the world and came to know their way about it; they found out what other peoples and countries were like; and, still more important, they became clever sailors, and learnt to manage their ships both in peace and war.

2. Let us see how the early English adventurers fared. The Portuguese had already gained a big start in India, Africa, and South America, and the Spaniards had sailed west and discovered the West Indies and Central America, so the English naturally turned to the northern seas. The first explorer to start from England was John Cabot. He was a Genoese, but he came to England, and King Henry VII. gave him leave to arrange an English expedition, and to take possession of any unknown lands he might discover. In 1497 he set out from Bristol, and sailed due west across the Atlantic till be discovered Newfoundland and the coast of North America. For this discovery the King gave him a reward of £10. In Henry VII.'s

[1] See maps on pp. 15 and 20.

account-book is written: "To hym that found the New Isle, £10." Newfoundland has been famous ever since for the fisheries on the banks which lie off her coast.

3. After this the English sailors, hearing of the riches of the Indian trade, thought that they might be able to find yet another way to India by sailing round the north of Europe, or even round the north of the new continent of America. So in 1553 an expedition set out under Sir Hugh Willoughby and Richard Chancellor, and sailed up the coast of Norway, little knowing what a rough and icy sea they would find. Before they had gone very far a great storm overtook them, and Willoughby and two of his ships were separated from the rest, and long afterwards they were found off the coast of Lapland with their crews all frozen to death. Chancellor managed to sail round the north of Norway into the White Sea, but then he saw that he could get no farther. So there he landed and travelled all through Russia, as far as Moscow, where he visited the Czar. This journey paved the way for English trade with Russia.

4. The next attempt was made in 1576 by a man called Frobisher, who sailed in the opposite direction, and thought he could find a way round the north of America; but though he sailed farther than any one else had been, he did not get very far on the road to India, as you can see by the bay that is called after him. Other people afterwards also tried to discover a sea-road to India by what is known as the North-west Passage; but it was soon found to be impossible, for during half the year the seas were frozen, while

during the other half they were filled with dangerous icebergs.

5. When the English found that there was little



SIR MARTIN FROBISHER, DIED 1594

(From a picture belonging to the Earl of Carlisle)

profit to be made out of voyages to these cold and desolate regions, they began to sail in the warmer seas to the south. But there they came across Spanish

ships, and soon a sort of private war sprang up between the sailors of the two countries. At that time the English quarrelled with the Spaniards, both because of their religion (for Spain was Catholic and England had just turned Protestant), and because they wanted a share in the trade with the New World. The Spanish colonies were very rich in gold and silver, but the Spaniards would allow no one but their own people even to land in them. The English objected to this policy of exclusion, and in trying to trade with America and the West Indies came into conflict with the Spaniards. They fought with such success that soon the name of the English sailors became a terror to the Spanish merchants. The Sea-dogs, as the English called themselves, roamed about the sea, and whenever one of the huge, clumsy Spanish treasure-ships hove in sight they used to cram all sail on their own vessels and overtake her. Then, after a struggle, they would plunder the Spanish ship and carry its treasure back to England. Before very long great numbers of Sea-dogs were busily engaged in these piratical exploits.

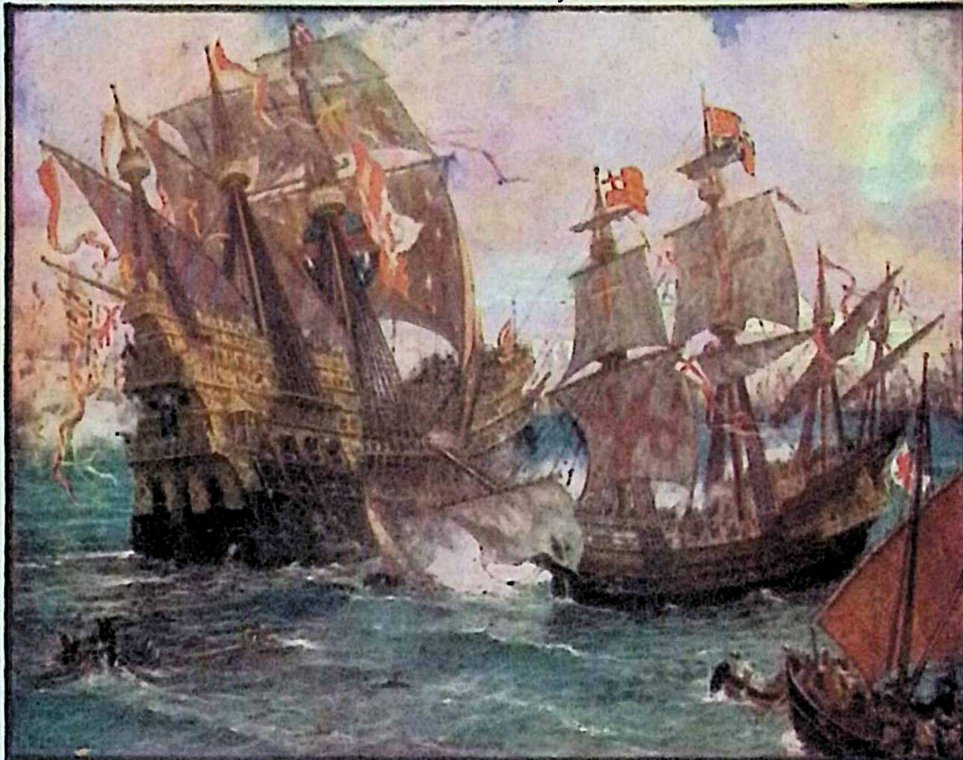
6. But after a time the Spanish king became annoyed at the growing power of the English, and their refusal to admit his claim to exclude them from trading with America. He was also opposed to them because of their conversion to Protestantism, so he determined to destroy them. He built a great fleet of which he was so proud that he called it the Invincible Armada, and sent it out, in 1588, to conquer England and destroy her sailors and fleet. The English were greatly alarmed, because Spain was then the strongest

power in Europe. But they collected all their ships and put them under their most famous sea-captains. Lord Howard was in command, and with him were Frobisher, Hawkins, Drake, and Raleigh, of whose



HAWKINS, DRAKE, AND CAVENDISH

exploits we shall hear more later on. The English ships were much smaller than the Spanish ships, and carried fewer guns and men, but they were swifter and more easy to stop or turn. The English, therefore, determined to avoid a regular battle, but to dash



THE SPANISH ARMADA IN THE ENGLISH CHANNEL

(Reduced from Longmans' Historical Wall Pictures by Henry J. Ford

in among the enemy's fleet as often as a good opportunity occurred and disable their ships one by one. When the Armada was first sighted coming up from the south there was a strong wind blowing up the Channel, so they let it go by, and then harassed it from behind. Whenever the Spaniards tried to turn their vessels round to resist the attack they were driven back by the wind, while the English ships could charge down as often as they liked. At last, when the ships of the Armada were all in confusion, the real battle took place, and the Spaniards were badly beaten. Then they tried to sail away, but a mighty gale sprang up and completed the victory the English had begun. The Spanish ships were driven round the north of Scotland, but one after the other they were dashed to pieces on the shore. Of all the 120 vessels of King Philip's Invincible Armada, only 54 shattered wrecks reached home to tell the tale.

7. This victory marks a very important stage in the growth of the Empire. Up to this time Spain had been the great colonising power, and, though the English Sea-dogs had captured some treasure-ships, the Spanish navy had always been supposed to be invincible. But the defeat of the Armada proved that a new people had arisen to a position of influence on the seas and in the New World. It also marked the failure of the first of the many attempts on the part of European kings to destroy the freedom of England and the English. It marked, too, the beginning of England's sea-power, and, as we shall learn later on, it has been sea-power which has enabled England to win and hold her Empire.

CHAPTER VI

THE SEA-DOGS[1]

1. ACCORDING to our modern standards many of the Sea-dogs were little better than pirates. There was one called John Hawkins, who made himself famous in a horrible way, for he was the first of the English to begin what is called the slave-trade. In one of his voyages to the Spanish colonies he found out that "negroes were very good merchandise in Hispaniola[2] (one of the West Indian Islands), and that they might easily be had off the coast of Guinea." They were used as labourers on the sugar plantations in the West Indies, and the planters, who could get no one else to do the work, used to pay high prices for them. Hawkins collected several ships, and filled them with negroes whom he seized on the west coast of Africa, and then he took them across the Atlantic and sold them in the Spanish colonies. People in those days were not so civilised as we are now, and they did not stop to think how cruel and wicked it was to tear all these poor negroes away from their homes and sell them into slavery. The Spaniards had long practised this trade and were anxious to keep it to themselves, and did not want the English to come near their colonies at all. So they used to attack the English slave-ships whenever they could find them, and the English captains had to smuggle their slaves ashore

[1] See map on p. 15 for Drake's voyage.
[2] Now known as Haiti.

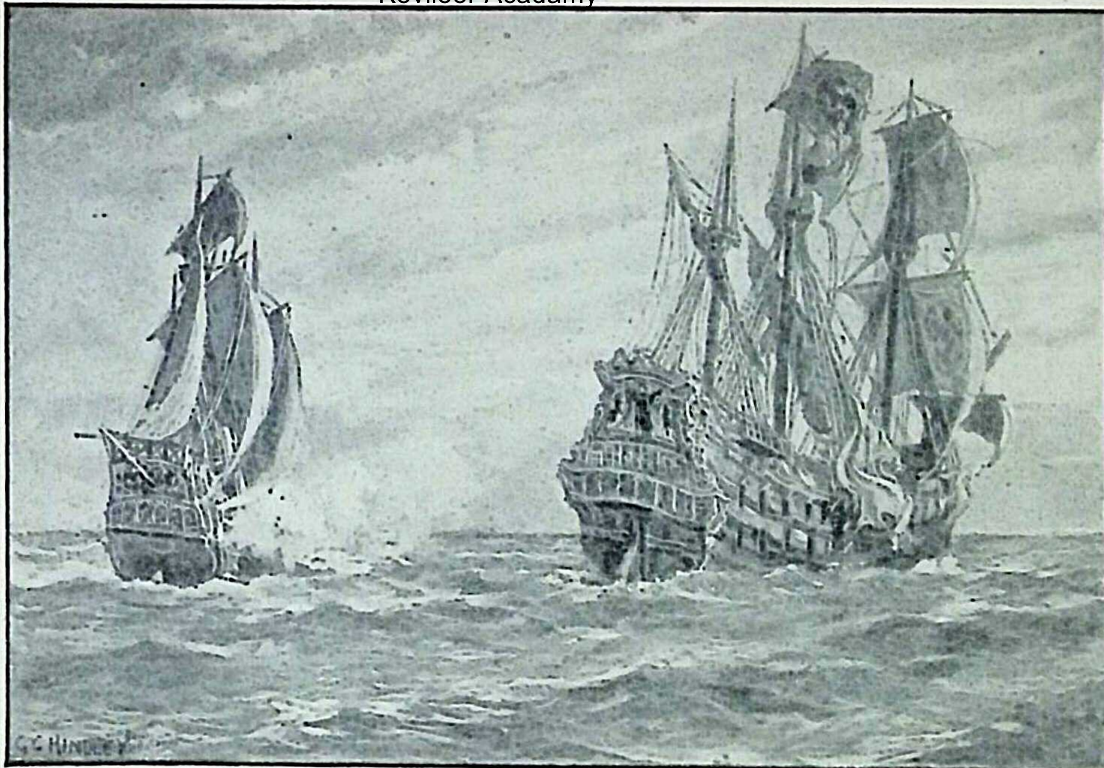
as best they could. Hawkins himself managed to smuggle a great many slaves, and made himself very rich. But at last he was caught by a strong Spanish fleet, and though he escaped with his life, he lost all his ships and nearly all his riches, which served him right.

2. One of his companions, who also escaped from this battle, was Francis Drake, the most famous of all the sailors of that time. We are told that he was "of low stature, but set and strong grown," and he was so bold that nothing could daunt him. His whole life was spent in fighting the Spaniards and in plundering their treasure-ships, so that they came to fear the very sound of his name. But the deed which made him most famous was his voyage round the world. In one of his earlier expeditions to the Isthmus of Panama, the long strip of land which joins North and South America, the natives had shown him the Pacific Ocean, and he prayed "Almighty God to give him life and leave to sail once in an English ship on that sea." So four years later, in 1577, he collected a little fleet of five ships, the biggest of which, called the *Pelican*, was a vessel of only 100 tons, and set sail across the Atlantic. Nowadays we are used to great liners of more than 80,000 tons, with every sort of luxury and comfort on board, and we may well wonder at the courage of those early sailors who ventured off like this to brave the storms and dangers of unknown seas.

3. Drake made straight for the Pacific, the new ocean on which no Englishman had ever sailed before. To get there he had to follow the east coast of South

America till he came to the Straits of Magellan; and here a fearful storm arose and separated his little fleet, so that when he reached the Pacific at the farther end he found himself alone. But, nothing daunted, he sailed up the western side of South America, and he soon came into conflict with his old enemies, the Spaniards, once more. As we have already learnt, they had long before discovered these coasts by crossing the Isthmus of Panama, and had begun a rich trade with them. But they never dreamt that any one would attack them from the Pacific side, and when Drake arrived he found them quite unprepared, and was able to carry off as much treasure as the *Pelican* would hold. In one place he found three vessels whose crews were all on shore, so he helped himself to fifty-seven blocks of silver, as big as bricks, which he found on board. Another time he heard that a great treasure-ship had just started on her homeward journey, so he quickly started in pursuit. Soon the great vessel was sighted, but Drake was afraid that her captain would see that the *Pelican* was chasing her and would keep out of her way. So he tied a lot of empty jars on to a rope, and trailed them behind him in the sea. This made the *Pelican* go so slowly that the Spanish captain thought she was just some native boat, and came quite close up to look at her. Suddenly he was startled by a great burst of firing, which damaged his ship so much that he had to surrender, and Drake was able to carry off the jewels and gold and other treasures which she contained.

4. Before very long Drake's name became a terror to the Spaniards. So frightened of him were they that



C

Drake Captures a Spanish Treasure Ship

they used to call him "*El Drague*"—"the Dragon." But after some years of this roving life up and down the Pacific coast of America, Drake began to think of going home. At first he tried to sail round the north of America, but when he had gone a very long way up the coast and discovered British Columbia, which is the westernmost province of Canada to-day, and still could find no passage, he changed his mind, and sailed right across the Pacific instead. To reach England in this way he had to go past the East Indies, across the Indian Ocean, and right round the foot of South Africa, and then sail northwards through the Atlantic to the English Channel. But in the end he accomplished this great journey, and when at last he reached Plymouth, at the end of three years, he could proudly say that he was the first English captain who had sailed all round the world. Every one was full of his wonderful adventures, and Queen Elizabeth herself went down to Plymouth and made him a knight on the deck of the brave little *Pelican*.

5. If you want to hear more about the exploits of this famous sea-dog you must read them in another book. There you will find what a great part he took in the war with Spain; how he helped to defeat the Great Armada; how he "singed the King of Spain's beard" by boldly sailing into a Spanish port and sinking or burning thirty of his ships; and how he had many more such adventures, until at last he died, and was buried in the sea which all his life had been his home, so that an old poet wrote:

> "The waves became his winding-sheet, the waters were his tomb,
> But for his fame the ocean sea was not sufficient room."

6. There is one other English sailor of those times whose name we must remember, and that is Sir Richard Grenville. During one of the battles with the Spaniards his little ship, the *Revenge*, was cut off from the rest of the English fleet, but, rather than give in or escape, he tried to force his way through the whole Spanish fleet. For fifteen hours he fought—one against fifty-three. At last, when he was mortally wounded, and there were hardly twenty men left alive, the *Revenge* gave in. His last words were: "Here die I, Richard Grenville, with a joyful and quiet mind, for that I have ended my life as a good soldier ought to do who has fought for his country and his queen, his honour and his religion."

CHAPTER VII

RESULTS OF THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

1. The exploits of the Sea-dogs and the struggle with Spain, ending in the defeat of the Armada, destroyed the monopoly of Spain and Portugal and opened the highways of the ocean to the English. Then a new phase of British history opened. Towards the end of the century a number of attempts were made to copy the example of Spain, and to found colonies of Englishmen in Newfoundland and in Virginia on the eastern coast of America. But these early settlements really belong to the next period, and we shall learn about them in the next chapter. Before we go on we must find out what the French and the

Dutch have been doing, and sum up the general results of the period.

2. About the same time as the English, the French began to think of following the example of Portugal and Spain in exploring the New World. In 1524 a man named Verruzano sailed all the way along the Atlantic coast of North America, from Florida to Newfoundland, and claimed it for the King of France. A far more important expedition was made in 1534, when Jacques Cartier, a Frenchman, sailed up the St. Lawrence River, and called all the country about it by the name of New France. This was the beginning of French power in Canada, and we shall hear a great deal more of it later on.

3. After the English and the French, another northern people, the Dutch, began to wander out over the seas. But by this time most of the world had been explored, so we do not hear of many great discoverers from Holland. The most important was Hudson, who tried to find a new route to India by the North-west Passage round America, but got no farther than Hudson's Bay. He also sailed up the river on which New York now stands, and which is still called after him. But although the Dutch were not famous discoverers, they became the greatest traders of that time. Like the Portuguese, they were more anxious to trade with the New World than to conquer it. They built a very large number of trading vessels and were so active and daring that in the end they very nearly drove the Portuguese out of the East.

4. We have now come to the end of the sixteenth century, the first period in the history of the Common-

wealth, and can look back and see what has happened. A hundred and thirty years before, all that the people of Europe knew of the earth was Europe itself, a little of North Africa, and the south-west of Asia. The rest of the world was unknown, and travel was so dangerous and difficult that people seldom ventured far afield. Then the closing of the great trade-routes to the East, inventions like the compass, the discovery that the earth was round, and the new birth of thought and learning, brought about a change. Men seemed suddenly to wake up, and seafarers of many nations set about exploring the unknown world. The Portuguese led the way by discovering the new road to India round the south of Africa, and by 1600 had built up a great trade with India and the East, and had founded an empire for themselves in Brazil. The Spaniards followed their example, and by the same date, 1600, they had conquered rich possessions in the West Indies and in Central and South America, from which they gained great wealth. Then came the English. They had not yet become great traders, and by 1600 they had won no lands beyond the sea, though they had tried to make some settlements in America. But they had devoted their attention to their shipping, and had already become the leading sea-power in the world. The French had explored the St. Lawrence River, and had tried to found a settlement there. And the Dutch were beginning to build up a great trade with the Far East.

5. So at the end of the first period two great changes had come about. In the first place, almost the whole world had been mapped; and the white

peoples of Europe, instead of being afraid to venture away from their homes, were gradually spreading over the new lands. In the second place, out of the islands and continents that had been discovered, two great empires had been founded—the trade Empire of the Portuguese, and the military Empire of the Spaniards. For most of the century the foremost position of Spain and Portugal was unchallenged. But at the end new peoples had risen up and had begun to prepare themselves to struggle for trade and influence and power in the New World; and the chief of these were the English.

6. The sixteenth century has been called the period of training, because during it England began to make herself fit for the task of building up the Commonwealth. Let us see what preparations she had made. In the first place, as we have seen, she had devised a good system of government, and banished from her own lands the tyranny and oppression which did so much harm to her neighbours. Under this good system of government her people grew rich, and strong, and independent. In the second place, her sailors and merchants had learnt thoroughly about the New World and the way to reach it. They had found their way to the new countries and discovered what the inhabitants and climate were like, and what riches and merchandise they contained. They had grown into bold and daring sailors, able to handle their ships in good weather and bad, and to fight by sea as well as on land. As we go on we shall see what tremendous advantages these were. The growth of political liberty in England meant that her children

took their ideals of government with them out into the New World and planted them so that they grew and flourished there. The development of sea-power meant that England was able to keep her possessions and keep open the sea-roads which led to them against the attacks of the great autocratic Kingdoms and Empires of Europe. The other great Powers, however, also learnt just this second lesson. Spain, Portugal, Holland, and France each in turn found that if they were to dominate the New World they must be strong by sea. So one after the other they came into conflict with the sea-power of England. That is why this period of training is so important, for during it the English gained the experience which enabled them in the end, after many struggles, to defeat all enemies, and so not only make possible the British Commonwealth, but the triumph of ideals of freedom in the New World instead of the autocratic ideas of Europe.

PART II

PERIOD OF COLONISATION BY SETTLEMENT
SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

CHAPTER VIII

ENGLAND'S FIRST COLONIES

"Green fields of England! Wheresoe'er
Across this watery waste we fare,
Your image at our hearts we bear,
Green fields of England, everywhere."

A. HUGH CLOUGH.

1. WE come now to the second period in the history of the Commonwealth, the seventeenth century, and at the beginning of it a new kind of explorer comes upon the scene. The first explorers had been men like Willoughby and Frobisher, who set out to discover new lands and new roads to old lands, and like the Sea-dogs, who roved the sea, making themselves rich by plundering the Spanish enemies of England. And now a second set appear, men who wanted to make England really great and strong, and who saw that there were better ways of doing this than merely by attacking the Spaniards and spoiling their trade and seizing their gold. They saw that the proper way was to found colonies in the New World where Englishmen would settle and make their homes, and which would

become in time new centres of freedom and great centres of trade. The first and most famous of the men to make this attempt were Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh. Neither of them lived to see their plans succeed, but we may still call Gilbert and Raleigh the founders of the Empire across the seas, because they were the first to think of spreading the power of England by planting colonies in different parts of the world, and because British colonies afterwards grew up in the very places they had chosen.

2. Sir Humphrey Gilbert made the first attempt to found a colony, and the place he chose was the nearest land he could find in the New World, the island of Newfoundland, which had been discovered nearly a hundred years before by John Cabot. This island claims to be the oldest British colony, but, though English people went out there very early on account of the fishing trade, it did not become part of the British Commonwealth until long afterwards. Sir Humphrey Gilbert founded his colony in 1583, but it did not succeed; the climate was cold and wet, and it was difficult to make a living, and so he and his settlers had to leave the island. But he never reached his home, for as he sailed across the Atlantic he was caught in a great storm. He had chosen the smallest boat for himself, a tiny vessel of ten tons, called the *Squirrel*, and would not go in a bigger one. He was not at all afraid, even in the height of the tempest, but called out to his friends in another ship, "We are as near heaven by sea as by land." A few minutes later his little boat was swallowed up by the waves, and all on board were drowned.

3. More famous still was his half-brother, Sir Walter Raleigh. He was one of the greatest men of that time, and was a special friend of Queen Elizabeth, who liked him for his good looks and his cleverness as well as for his fearless daring. He loved adventure, and all his life, whenever danger threatened and blows



SIR WALTER RALEIGH

had to be struck by land or sea, he was sure to be in the thick of it. Besides this, he was a learned man and a poet; but the dearest wish of his heart was to spread the power and fame of England, by founding colonies in the New World. He made many voyages across the Atlantic, and you have probably heard how he brought tobacco and potatoes from America to England for the first time. In 1584 the Queen gave him permission to take any heathen lands he might

discover, and to found a colony at a place on the coast of America, which he called Virginia, after Queen Elizabeth. But for one reason or another the colony did not flourish. Some of the colonists were killed by natives, some disappeared and were never heard of any more, and at length the remainder were rescued and brought home by Drake. But Raleigh did not give up the idea of winning lands in the New World for England, and a few years afterwards he set out on a voyage to South America, to look for a wonderful land full of silver and gold of which he had heard. As you may suppose, he never found it, though he went 400 miles up the Orinoco River in search of it.

4. Raleigh was a great enemy of Spanish domination, and over and over again we find him fighting against them. He was one of the admirals who commanded the ships which defeated the great Armada, and when some years later Queen Elizabeth sent out a fleet to attack the Spaniards on their own shores, Raleigh sailed with them in his ship called the *Warspit*. They made for Cadiz, where they found the Spanish ships drawn up in a line across the harbour. Raleigh led the way amongst them, and laid the *Warspit* alongside of the two largest Spanish ships. After a desperate struggle, the Spaniards were utterly defeated and set fire to their own vessels. Then the English landed and, in accord with the custom of the time, sacked the town.

5. When the Queen died Raleigh lost his high place in Court, and his enemies persuaded King James to put him into prison. Even then he could not be idle, and he set to work to write a "History of the

World." After a time he begged King James to let him go and look once more for his golden country, and the King, who wanted money, released him on condition he did not make war on the Spaniards, for England was then at peace with Spain. Unfortunately for Raleigh, the part of South America to which he sailed already belonged to the Spaniards, who naturally refused to allow their old enemy to land and search for riches. So instead of returning in triumph with his ships loaded with treasure, poor Raleigh had to tell the King that he had found no riches, and had been defeated after disobeying his orders, and had lost his son as well. James was so angry with him for breaking his command that he ordered his head to be cut off, which seems very cruel to us to-day. Raleigh, who had been so brave all his life, was not afraid to die. When he mounted the scaffold he asked to see the axe, and, feeling its edge, he said: "This is sharp medicine, but it is a sound cure for all diseases." Then he said his prayers, laid his head on the block, and quietly met his death.

6. So we see that the first attempt at founding settlements had been a failure. But the idea was not given up, for many different sorts of people believed in it. The English sailors and merchants wanted to share in the riches of the New World, and they soon found that in the long run the best way of growing rich was not to fight and rob the Spaniards, but to trade with colonies of Englishmen in the New World. Other people, again, were jealous of the power of Spain, and thought that by founding colonies they would put a "byt into the ancient enemye's mouth."

Kings and statesmen, too, saw that colonies would spread the power of England over the world. Hakluyt, who lived in those days, helped to rouse the ambition of the English by his writings. In 1589 he said in his odd, old-fashioned language: "I conceive great hope that the time approacheth, and now is, that we of England may share and part stakes (if we will ourselves) both with the Spaniards and the Portingale (Portuguese), in part of America and other regions as yet undiscovered." We will see in the next chapter how these ideas bore fruit.

CHAPTER IX

THE AMERICAN COLONIES[1]

1. Although the first attempts at colonising America were a failure, it was not very long before a successful settlement was made. Curiously enough it was founded in the very place which Sir Walter Raleigh had chosen. Though Raleigh was very much disappointed at his first failure, he was not discouraged, and wrote home a prophecy to Lord Burleigh, the Secretary of State, which in the end came true. He said, "I shall yet live to see it an English nation," and sure enough the new colony of Virginia was founded in 1607, eleven years before his head was cut off.

2. The colony was soon in trouble. It was an experiment, and there were few people bold enough to lead the way there, especially after the disappointments of the earlier settlement, and of Sir Humphrey

[1] See map on p. 71.

Gilbert's expedition to Newfoundland. It was difficult to find labourers, and food and everything else was scarce and expensive, because there were not enough people to do the work. "Nothing is to be expected thence but by labour," wrote the leader of the settlers. Then the founders of the colony tried to use force, and sent a great many homeless boys and girls, and even prisoners, out from England. Naturally such people did not make good settlers, and the colonists complained that they were "unruly gallants packed thither by their friends to escape ill destinies." But at last a way was found out of the difficulty, and a large number of negroes was brought in from Africa to do the work. These negroes have been one of the greatest troubles of America ever since; but they were found very useful at the time, and they were set to grow tobacco, for which that country is well suited. The tobacco plant grew so well, and there was such a good sale for it, that soon the very streets of their towns were sown with it. In fifteen years the number of colonists had grown to five thousand.

3. But in those days there was one great obstacle in the way of founding colonies successfully. The Government of England was too busy to help settlement, and it could do little more than give charters which allowed people to trade, or set up colonies in certain places. So that all the work of starting new colonies had to be done by private people. But private people found that though plenty of men were ready enough to go off for a year or two on a voyage of discovery, hoping to make a fortune at the end, they were not so anxious to leave their old homes for

ever. They did not like the idea of taking their wives and families to a far-away, unknown country, where they might be attacked by savages, where there were no towns or villages, or even houses or roads, and where at first it would be difficult to make a living. It is quite a different thing nowadays when people can read about a new country, and can even go and see it, and then come home if they can't find friends or don't get on. In those days it was a dangerous, lonely undertaking, and men and women would not go out as settlers to America unless they had some very strong reason to make them go.

4. Fortunately for the world, a very strong reason appeared at this very time. As you know from your English history, there was a great dispute going on in England between King James I. and the Puritans. The Puritans refused to conform to the official religion and wanted to be allowed to worship God in their own way. The King's party was the stronger, and the Puritans were persecuted for their religion, and a great many of them went to Holland to escape from their enemies. Then some of them made up their minds to go off to the New World, because they thought that there they would be able to practise their religion in peace.

5. In May 1620 the first band of a hundred and two set sail in a tiny ship called the *Mayflower*. Though the journey only takes five days now, it was six long months before the Pilgrim Fathers, as they were called, sighted land. Their leaders had meant to go to Virginia, but the *Mayflower* was driven ashore much farther north, at Cape Cod, and there the Pilgrim

Fathers landed and founded their colony. The shore was very bleak and cold, and the country covered with forests, and the hard winter of those parts set in on them almost at once. For the first few years they had to suffer terrible hardships. The only people in the land were the wandering tribes of savage Indians.



THE "MAYFLOWER"

There was no one from whom they could buy what they wanted, so that, except for the few things they had been able to bring with them in their little ship, they had to make everything for themselves. And while they were ploughing and sowing, and building their houses and churches, and making their carts and furniture, they were never far from starvation, and often "they knew not at night where to have a bit in the morning."

6. Emigration in those days was no easy task. But the Pilgrim Fathers were strong, brave men, and they proudly boasted that "it was not with them as with other men whom small things can discourage or small discontentments cause to wish themselves at home again." And their friends in England wrote to encourage them: "Let it not be grievous unto you that you have been instrumental to break the ice for others. The honour shall be yours unto the world's end." So they struggled on until they began to prosper, and after a time the English colonies became the strongest and most powerful of all the colonies in America.

7. Once the news of their success reached England, other people began to follow their example. In this way a new colony called Massachusetts was founded in 1629, and in ten years nearly 20,000 people had settled there. Soon a whole group of settlements grew up all along the American coast, which came to be known as the New England Colonies. The most important of them were New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Maine. Nearly all the people who lived in them were Puritans who had left England to escape from persecution.

8. The Puritan settlements were not the only ones. People belonging to other religions, who were being persecuted in the same way as the Puritans, also migrated to America. In 1634 Lord Baltimore founded a colony for the Catholics, and called it Maryland after the wife of Charles I. In 1663 the colonies of North and South Carolina were formed farther south, partly for the sake of trade and partly because of religious persecution. Later on, in 1681,

Pennsylvania was founded by William Penn for the Quakers, and so well did it flourish that in twenty years its chief town, Philadelphia, contained four thousand inhabitants.

9. Thus it was the Reformation and the spiritual activity which followed it which led to the founding of these colonies. It was the religious persecutions, and later the civil wars, which drove first one side and then the other to try its fortunes in the New World, and which thus overcame the great difficulty of persuading men and women to leave their homes to go out to a new country. By the end of the seventeenth century the English settlers spread all along the east coast of North America, till they met the French in the north and the Spaniards in the south. Of all the thirteen English colonies, there were only two which were not directly due to these causes—Virginia, which was founded before the Puritan persecution, and Georgia, which was not founded until 1733.

CHAPTER X

THE EXPANSION OF BRITISH TRADE [1]

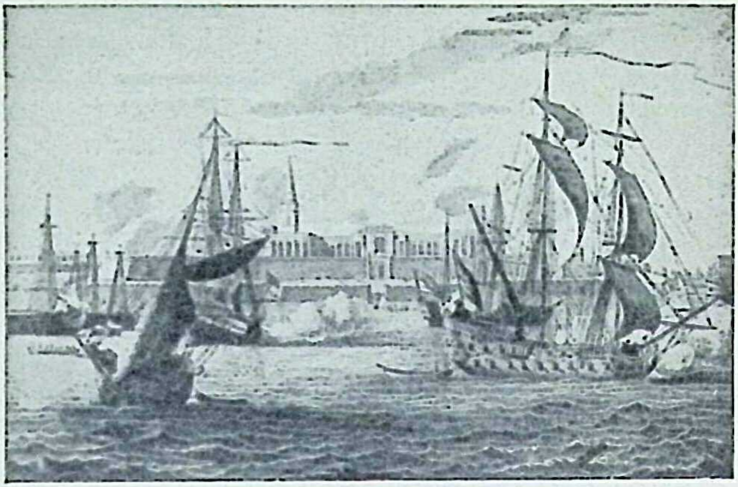
1. You must not suppose that all the efforts of the English during the seventeenth century were spent in the foundation of the American Colonies, or that England was left unmolested by her enemies. At the same time that the Puritans, the Catholics, and the Quakers were colonising new lands for England in America, other Englishmen were spreading her trade

[1] See map facing p. 65.

over the rest of the world. You will remember that at the end of the last period the English Sea-dogs were busy plundering the Spanish dominions, but in the beginning of the seventeenth century King James I. made peace with Spain, and the plunder of the Spanish galleys had to come to an end. Then the English sailors and merchants began to think of trading for themselves. At first traders fitted out ships of their own, and sent them out to bring back the riches and spices of India and other foreign countries. Then after a time all the people who traded with the same lands would join together and obtain a charter from the king, which gave them the control of all the trade with these lands, and forbade other Englishmen to interfere with them. So they became chartered companies, which had what was called a monopoly of trade. But wherever the English went in search of trade they either found the traders of other nations already on the spot or they were quickly followed by them. Neither side wanted to share their trade with the other, and so, as we shall see in the next chapter, it was not very long before quarrels arose.

2. The first company to be founded was the English East India Company, which obtained a charter from Queen Elizabeth in 1600 to trade with India and the islands of the East, "for the honour of our nation and the wealth of our people." Two years later the Dutch also set up a rival East India Company of their own. The English East India Company soon found that, in order to carry on its business, it had to send men out to live in the far-off countries to bargain with the natives and collect goods, ready to be put on board the

Company's ships when they arrived. So a number of trading stations were founded by the English in India during the seventeenth century. The most important were Madras and Calcutta on the east coast, and Bombay on the west coast. These places grew very quickly, and the English traders avoided the mistake



FORT WILLIAM

made by their Dutch and Portuguese rivals, that of maintaining large armed forces. They followed the advice of Sir Thomas Roe, who told them, "If you will profit, seek it at sea and in quiet trade."

3. But trading stations alone were not enough. The journey to and from the East was a very long one, for in those days there was no Suez Canal, and ships had to travel all round the south of Africa, and as they were only sailing vessels, the voyage used to last

several months. So the traders of all nations had to establish stopping-places on the way to and fro, where their ships could put in and obtain fresh meat, vegetables, and water. You remember how the Portuguese had founded Algoa and Delagoa as stopping-places on the road to Goa in India. And now the Dutch and the English had to follow suit. The Dutch founded a port of call for their sailors at Cape Town, in the very south of Africa; and the English made their chief stopping-place in the little island of St. Helena, in the South Atlantic.

4. The East India Company was not the only English trading company; several others were founded during this period. One, the Russian Company, was set up to carry on the trade with Russia that had been started by Chancellor. Another, which became more famous, was the African Company, which traded with the countries in the west of Africa where the negroes were seized and sent off to slavery in America. Its first station was founded in Gambia, which became famous for its slave and ivory trades. Farther south another station was set up at Cape Coast Castle. Both of these places still belong to the British Empire.

5. A very large trade also sprang up with the West Indies, and there, too, the English merchants needed trading stations and stopping-places for their ships on the journeys to and fro. So, in 1605, they took Barbados, a West Indian island just off the South American coast, and four years later the Bermudas, which are an important group of islands nearer the middle of the Atlantic. In 1623 St. Kitts was seized

by Captain Warner, who "thought it would be a very convenient place for ye planting of tobacco, which there was a rich commoditie." St. Kitts became the mother of the English colonies in those seas, for from it settlers spread to other islands, like Antigua, Monserrat, and Dominica.

6. But the most important possession of England in the West Indies was gained later in the century, and this was the island of Jamaica, which was taken from the Spaniards in 1655. The capture of Jamaica was important, partly because it was a very big and rich island, and partly because it was the first possession that England won by conquest. Up to that time she had always gained her colonies by settlement—that is to say, Englishmen had settled in parts of the New World which had not been colonised by any other nation of Europe. But when Cromwell came into power a new era began. Cromwell was the man who led the Puritans and the Roundheads in the great war against King Charles I. and the Royalists. After the defeat and death of the King he went to war with Spain, which was the great Catholic power. He refused to acknowledge the claim of the Spanish king that the whole of the New World belonged to Spain, and allowed the English to attack Jamaica and the Spanish possessions in the West Indies. That is how England conquered her first possessions abroad.

7. After its capture there were not enough settlers to do the work of the colony, so Cromwell sent a lot of Royalists prisoners out to colonise it and to work in the sugar plantations. A great many negro slaves

were also brought from the West Coast of Africa to labour in the fields. So that Jamaica became famous for two things—for its sugar, and as a great market for negro slaves. In fact, it grew to be the chief centre of the slave-trade, which, as we have read, was begun long before by John Hawkins.

8. So we see that quite early in the century the British had built up a large trade all over the world. In addition to the real colonies in America, they had trading stations in India and the West Indies, and stopping-places, like St. Helena and the Bermudas, on the road to the New World and the Far East.

CHAPTER XI

WAR WITH THE DUTCH

1. UNFORTUNATELY, not long after they began trading with India, the English came into conflict with the Dutch. In those days traders always wanted to keep the trade with a particular country in their own hands, and to prevent anybody else from taking any of it from them. At the very beginning of the century, while the Dutch and English East India Companies were still small, there was plenty of room for them both, especially as the Dutch were busy driving out the Portuguese who had enjoyed all the trade for a hundred years. But, by 1623, the struggle for trade had become so fierce that we find the English and Dutch coming to blows with each other for the first time. One of the most important of the Dutch trading stations was at Amboyna, an island in the

East Indies, and the rivalry of the Dutch with the English was so great that, finding they could get rid of them in no other way, they seized on the English merchants and put them to death because they had dared to trade in their ports. When the news of this massacre reached England it naturally made the English very angry, but war did not break out at once, and both Dutch and English went on strengthening their positions. By the middle of the century the Dutch had almost driven the Portuguese out of the East; they had taken Mauritius, Ceylon, and Malacca, and set up trading stations all along the West African coast, in the Persian Gulf, and in Burma, and had sailed past Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand. But they were not satisfied to keep only to Eastern seas. In 1621 they founded a West India Company in the hopes of conquering Brazil from the Portuguese, and a year later they planted the colony of New Amsterdam on the river Hudson, where New York now stands.

2. But the Dutch and English each wanted the lion's share of the trade, and their merchants were competing against one another in every sea and every port. One people or the other had to take the second place, for even in the great New World that had been discovered they did not seem to think there could be room for two such daring and ambitious peoples to trade side by side in peace. It was the English who brought matters to a head in 1651. In that year they passed the Navigation Act, which declared that all goods coming into England must be carried in British ships, or in the ships of the country

from which the goods came. This was a heavy blow to the Dutch, for at that time so much of the trade of the world was carried in their vessels that they were called the "Waggoners of the Seas"; and in the next year war broke out. The struggle lasted for twenty-two years, during which there were three wars, the first from 1652 to 1654, when Cromwell was ruling England; the second from 1665 to 1667, and the third from 1672 to 1674, both during the reign of Charles II.

3. All the fighting in these wars was on the sea, and sometimes it was the Dutch and sometimes the English who won. Both sides had famous admirals; the Dutch were led by Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt, and the English by Blake and Monk. Many fierce battles were fought. These sea-battles were very different from those of to-day. Instead of fighting with huge ironclads and torpedoes, and with guns which can sink a ship ten miles away, they had to use clumsy sailing vessels, and their one idea was to get quite close to the enemy's ships, so as to board them and seize them after a hand-to-hand fight. The admirals, too, were often just as good soldiers as they were sailors. Blake himself, one of the most famous of English seamen, fought in all Cromwell's wars on land, and had never been on board a man-of-war until he was fifty years old.

4. When the war first broke out the Dutch were the more successful. The English themselves said that the Dutch fleet was better managed than their own. "The Dutch do fight in very good order and we in none at all." But, though often defeated, the

English would not give in. As De Witt said: "These men may be killed, but they will never be beaten." Thus, in 1652, Van Tromp surprised Blake off the Downs, and after a furious battle, claimed a victory and sailed up the Channel with a broom tied to his masthead, boasting that he had swept the English off the sea. But next year the English were ready to give battle again, and Blake utterly defeated Van Tromp, and then, in his turn, sailed about with a whip-lash streaming from his mast, to show how he had whipped the Dutch. And so the wars dragged on, first one side winning and then the other. In 1666 the English destroyed the Dutch fleet off the coast of Holland, and in the next year the Dutch sailed up the Thames and burnt three of the English men-of-war. At the end of each of the wars, though neither side could claim a very decided victory, it was England who gained nearly all the advantages. After the first war the Dutch had to allow the British to share in the trade with India and the East, and in the trade with the Baltic as well, which they had claimed as their own monopoly. In the second war they lost their colony of New Amsterdam in America, which the English renamed New York, after the Duke of York, who was King Charles' brother and a great admiral. And, at the very end of the struggle, Holland had to pay a large sum of money and acknowledge that England held the first place on the sea.

5. This war shows two things. First, it shows how England was helped by being an island. England was weaker than Holland when the struggle began, but she was guarded by her sea-walls, and was able to throw

all her strength into the war without fearing an onslaught from behind. But Holland was not an island. If she put out all her force against the English, it meant that she was leaving an open door behind her through which her powerful enemies, the Spaniards and the French, could attack her. So she had by far the hardest task, and, bravely as she fought, in the long run she had to give in.

6. In the second place, the Dutch wars show the importance of sea-power. Once England had won command of the sea, not only was she safe from her enemies, she was also able to carry her trade to whatever part of the world she liked, and nobody could stop her. This was a tremendous advantage. While other nations were fighting with each other, and feared to send their merchants and ships on long expeditions to the East or the New World, because they might be attacked and captured on the way, the English were able to spread their trade in all quarters of the globe, without interference, and so grew rich and powerful. We shall see later on that, whenever her enemies wanted to injure her, they had first of all to build a navy of their own and destroy her fleet, because otherwise they were unable to do her any harm. So all the great wars of England, from the days nearly 250 years ago, when the Dutch were forced to give up the first place to her fleet, have always been fought to keep her supremacy by sea. For it is sea-power alone that protects England and the Commonwealth from invasion, and which keeps open the roads between all its different parts.

CHAPTER XII

SUMMARY OF THE SECOND PERIOD

1. We have now come to the end of the second period in the history of the Commonwealth. It is called the period of Colonisation by Settlement, because it is the time during which the English began to found colonies of settlers in the empty lands of the New World. Let us go back and see what has happened in the last hundred years.

2. In 1600 the English did not possess one mile of land outside the British Isles, for the two colonies they had tried to found in Virginia and in Newfoundland had both failed. But by 1700 the foundations of the British Commonwealth had been laid all the world over. A long line of settlements had sprung up along the eastern shore of North America. Valuable trading stations had been gained in the West Indies, on the coast of Africa, and in India and the East Indian Islands. And, still more important, England had been engaged in a second great struggle for sea-power and had come out victorious. The first, in 1588, had been with the Spaniards. The second, from 1652 to 1674, was with the Dutch.

3. Now let us see what happened to the other Powers. You remember that at the beginning of the period there were two great Empires—the land Empire of the Spanish and the trade Empire of the Portuguese. In 1700 Spain was still a great Power, and still had broad possessions, but she had lost the

first place, for the English held command of the sea and had taken Jamaica. Portugal had fallen still more sadly by 1700. She kept her Empire in Brazil and some lands on the coast of Africa, but she had been nearly driven out of the East, her own discovery, by the English and the Dutch. France and Holland, on the other hand, who, like England, had made hardly any mark in the New World in the beginning of the century, had come to the front in this last hundred years. France had been busy spreading her settlements up the St. Lawrence, and founding new ones along the banks of the Mississippi. By 1700 she had taken possession of the provinces now known as Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Quebec in Canada, and of Louisiana in the south, and had laid claim to all the country at the back of the English colonies, from the Great Lakes of Canada to the mouth of the Mississippi. Holland had turned all her strength to trade, so that during the early part of the century she had the strongest navy and was the greatest trading Power in the world. But there was such rivalry between the English and the Dutch that at last war broke out between them. In the end the English were victorious, won some of Holland's most valuable possessions, and gained command of the sea.

4. Let us have another look at the British possessions. We see that they were of two kinds. In the first place there were the settlements along the American coast. These were true colonies, for the people who lived in them were English settlers who had left their own country to make new homes over the sea, and the lands they chose were empty when

they arrived, except for a few wandering tribes of Indians. The life of the settlers in these colonies was very like the life of people in England, for they took with them their religion, their language, their laws, and their system of government. So these colonies might truly be called England over the sea. At first they were small and thinly populated, but they grew steadily larger and more prosperous, especially after people began to stream out to them in order to escape from religious persecution and civil wars at home. So gradually the Indians were driven farther and farther back, until finally the English settlers found themselves unable to extend farther along the coast to the north or south, because they were face to face with white settlers of another race, the French. And we shall see later on how they met the French again when they began to expand further inland towards the west.

5. The second kind of British possessions were the lands they had conquered, and the stations they had founded for the sake of trade. When the English arrived in places like India, or Jamaica, or the East Indian Islands, they found there already a large coloured population, and there was little or no room for many white people to settle down as farmers. Moreover, most of these countries were in the tropics, and were so hot that white people were unable to live and work, or bring up strong and healthy families in them. But gold, jewels, spices, foodstuffs, and other valuable things were to be bought cheaply from the natives, and could afterwards be sold for a high price in Europe. So a few white people—traders, and

soldiers, and government officials—went to live in these countries, which were called dependencies. The dependencies, therefore, were not settlements, but to begin with were possessions valued chiefly because of their trade.

6. So from the very beginning of the history of the Commonwealth we notice two great features which have stood out ever since. One is the difference between the colonies, or dominions, the lands which are the homes of white men and women, and the dependencies, which are the homes of black and brown people, and only governed from London. The other is that from the moment England began to possess lands across the sea, she had to fight for sea-power. If England had not been able to win the command of the sea from the Dutch, she would probably have lost her trade with the East, and instead of gaining some of their most valuable lands, would have had to give up her own. As it was, she held the sea-roads, and could protect her colonies and strengthen her defences, so that she was ready for the next rival who came to challenge the Empire.

PART III

PERIOD OF EXPANSION BY CONQUEST
EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

CHAPTER XIII

THE BEGINNING OF THE FIRST STRUGGLE WITH FRANCE[1]

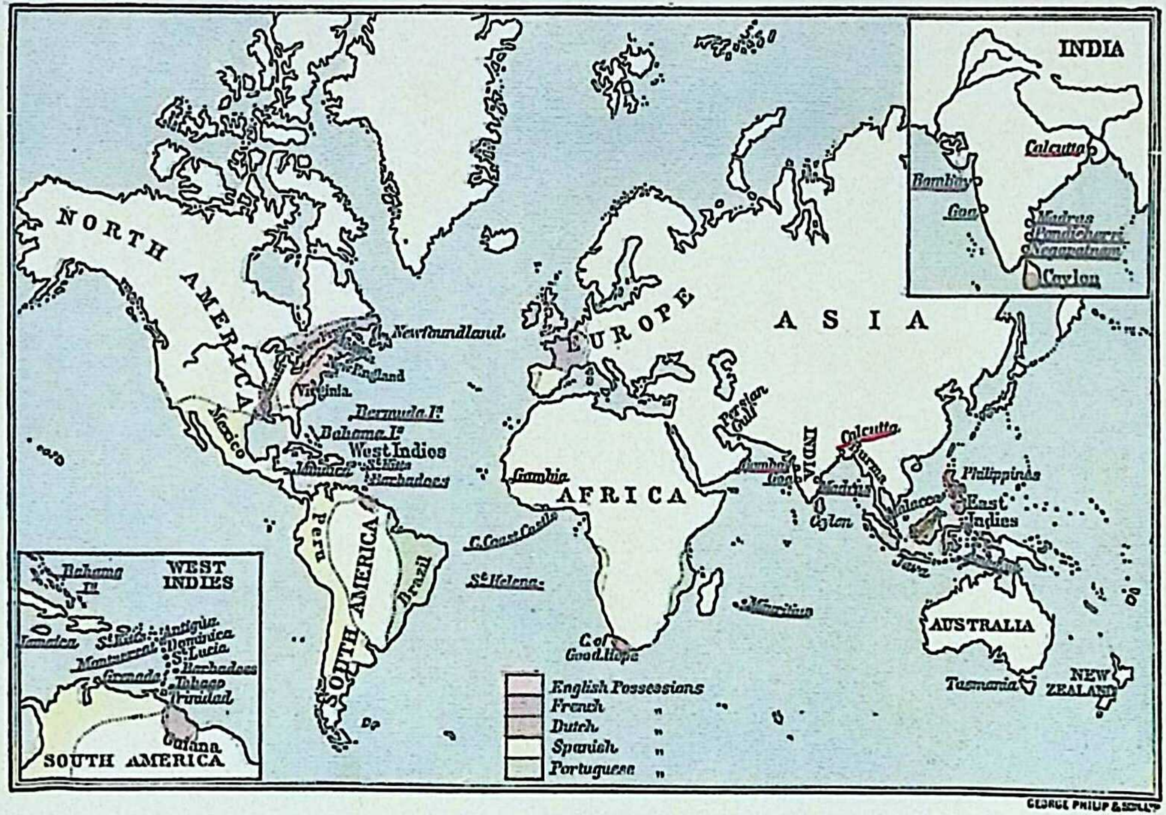
"This England never did nor never shall
Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror;
Come the three corners of the world in arms,
And we shall shock them: nought shall make us rue,
If England to itself do rest but true."

SHAKESPEARE, *King John*.

1. WE have now come to a new and most important period in the history of the Commonwealth, which we call the period of Expansion by Conquest. We have seen how England laid the foundation of her Commonwealth by peaceful settlement; we have seen, too, how she wrestled with Holland for the first place on the sea, and how in the end she won it. Now we shall have to learn how, during the eighteenth century, the Empire grew as the result of war; how for more than a hundred years England was engaged in a desperate struggle with a powerful neighbour, France; and how what she fought for was the control of the New World and the preservation of her free system of government.

[1] See maps on pp. 71 and 94.

THE WORLD IN 1700



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2. The new period begins in 1689. You remember from your English history how King James II. was driven from the throne by his subjects, and how William of Orange, the Stadtholder of Holland, was brought over to reign in England instead. After this the Dutch and English, who had previously been enemies, became friends. And it was lucky they did so, because it was not very long before they had to defend themselves against France. Louis XIV. was a very ambitious man. He was jealous of the independence of the Dutch, and he helped James II. to try to recover power in England after the English had deposed him and asserted the supremacy of Parliament over the Crown. Further, he was not content with being the most powerful king in the Old World, but he wanted to make himself the most powerful king in the New World too. His ambitions threatened his neighbours, so war broke out almost at once between France on the one hand, and England and Holland on the other. The struggle between England and France, which thus began in 1689, went on through one war after another, until the battle of Waterloo in 1815. Before beginning to learn about this war, let us stop and see what France had been doing up to this time in the New World.

3. You remember that Canada was discovered in 1534 by Jacques Cartier, who tried to found a colony there. This colony did not succeed any better than the first English one, and for seventy years afterwards the French left Canada alone. In 1604 a new settlement was made near the mouth of the St. Lawrence River, on the land along the southern shore, which

the French named Acadie.[1] But the true founder of French Canada was Champlain, because he firmly established the French in that country, so that he was called the Father of New France. It was he who built the Fort of Quebec on a magnificent rock overlooking the St. Lawrence, and created a settlement about it, and Quebec has been the capital of the French part of Canada ever since. He and his followers also explored the country far up the river and about the Great Lakes, and wherever they went they claimed the land for France. Champlain himself was always hoping to find a way to China across America; he little knew what miles and miles of land there were between him and the Pacific Ocean.

4. The whole of that part of North America was covered with forests, and threaded by countless rivers and lakes. The forests were full of wild animals whose fur could be sold for high prices in Europe, and the rivers and lakes were like roads up which the hunters could row in their canoes. So the French colonists soon became great hunters and skilled woodsmen, and spent most of their time exploring, or hunting and trading furs with the Indians. They sent out a great many missionaries too, and many of the Indians were converted and became Christians; but sometimes the French were attacked by the Indians, who resented the steady march of the white man into his country.

5. After a time the French colonists came across other white men, the New England settlers to the

[1] Acadie is now the territory known as Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

south. As the French pushed south the English pushed north, and neither side would give way. So all through the seventeenth century we see the two peoples growing more and more jealous of each other, and ready to fight and raid each other's lands. In 1613 Samuel Argall of Virginia sacked the French town of Port Royal in Acadie. A few years later the English took Quebec and conquered almost the whole of New France; but in 1632 a treaty was made between England and France, by which the conquests were restored, and after that there was peace for a time. Towards the end of the century, however, the English found that the French explorers had pushed their way far into the heart of America and were claiming all the land they discovered for their own. La Salle had even crossed from the Great Lakes to the Mississippi, and sailing down this mighty river to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico, had called the country round about it Louisiana, after King Louis. This alarmed the New England settlers very much, because they saw that if the French were once allowed to take possession of the inland parts of America, they themselves would soon be shut in between the Alleghany Mountains and the sea.

6. It was just at this moment that William III. was made King of England, and that England and Holland went to war with France, as we have already seen. This first conflict between England and France falls into two parts, with a few years peace in between. The first war lasted from 1689 to 1697, and was inconclusive. During it there was fighting on both sides of the Atlantic. In America it left matters much as

they were before, as first one side and then the other won battles. The English conquered Acadie and later on they lost it. The French, under their governor Frontenac, took the forts belonging to the Hudson Bay Company and then were driven out again. The most important battle took place in Europe when the English and Dutch defeated the French fleet at La Hogue in 1692. Although this battle did not immediately bring the war to a close, it was important, because it showed that the French attack on the English sea-power had failed, and that the English still held the command of the sea which they had won from the Dutch a few years before. We shall see how vital this was to be to England a few years later on. After this the war dragged on for several years, as the English were too strong by sea and the French too strong by land, for either side to be able thoroughly to defeat the other. But in 1697 the Treaty of Ryswick was made, which brought it to an end, by arranging that each side was to give back to the other all the conquests it had made.

CHAPTER XIV

THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION

1. But the Treaty of Ryswick was only a truce. Five years later another, and far fiercer, war began, which lasted from 1702 to 1713. This was called the War of the Spanish Succession. The King of Spain had died in 1700, and as he had no son, he left his throne to the grandson of the King of France.

Since the end of the sixteenth century Spain had been growing steadily weaker, and the European states were genuinely anxious lest when the Spanish Empire fell to pieces, as now seemed probable, the greater share of her colonial wealth and trade should fall into the hands of Louis XIV. What France might do seriously alarmed England and Holland. The prospect of the old Spanish American colonies controlled by the more vigorous French rule was a threat to the trade and freedom of both England and Holland. If France and Spain were united into a single great military state, it would be powerful enough to seize the English colonies and stop England's trade. Holland was still more afraid, for she knew that they would not be content with taking her colonies and trade, but would want to conquer her own country as well. So England and Holland joined together once more, and entered into an alliance with the princes of Germany to prevent the union of the crowns of France and Spain.

2. War broke out in 1702. Most of the fighting was done in Europe, where the great Duke of Marlborough won his splendid victories. The French had grown so powerful that they had come to believe they could never be beaten, until Marlborough proved that they were wrong. Again and again he defeated them. He never fought a battle which he did not win, nor besieged a fortress which he did not take, so that at last France had no more armies left. Unfortunately we have not room to tell you all about these stories. They belong to the history of Europe, but they are important to the Commonwealth too, for they defeated

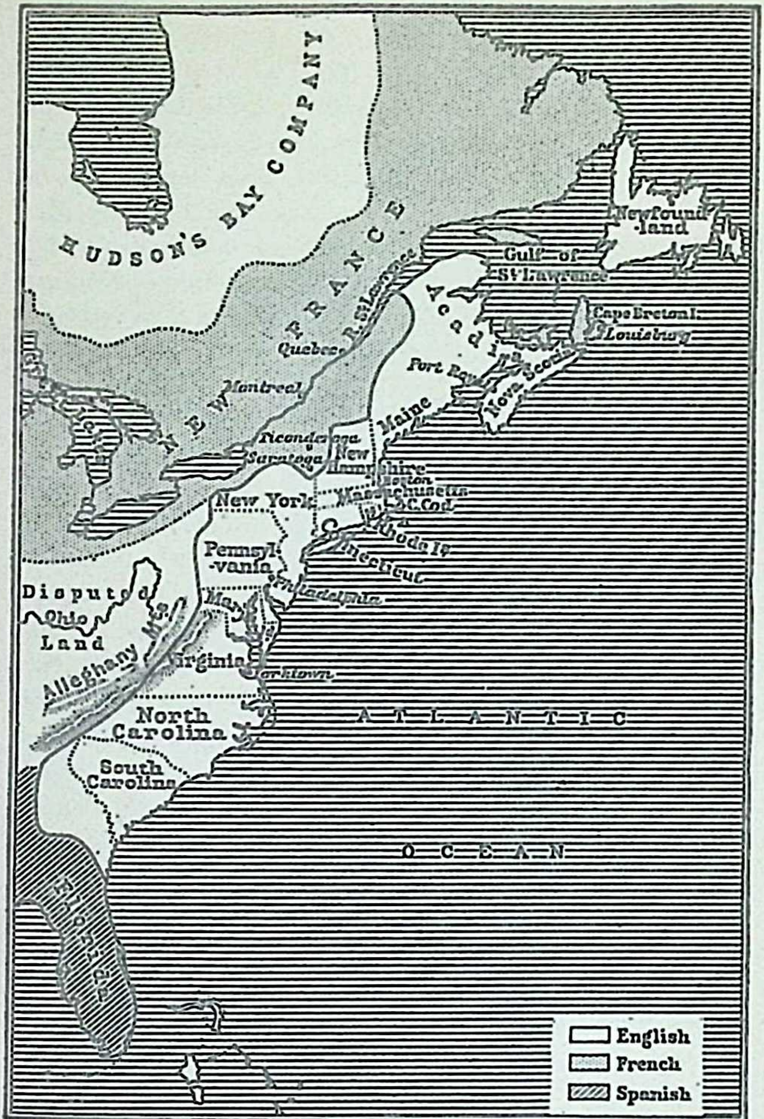
the aims of King Louis and broke the power of France.

3. There were sea battles too in this war. In 1704 Sir George Rooke took Gibraltar, the great rock in the south of Spain, which stands out like a sentinel into the sea to guard the gateway to the Mediterranean. Gibraltar was badly fortified, and it soon had to give in to the fire of Rooke's guns. At first the people of England hardly understood the value of their capture, but gradually they came to see, as one of Rooke's admirals had said, that "it was the most advantageous conquest that could be made for the benefit of the trade as well as the fleet during war with France and Spain." It was indeed a great gain to the Empire; for when England won Gibraltar, she won the key to the Mediterranean, and her fleets could sail in and out as they liked, so that she took command of that inland sea as well as of the other oceans of the world. Four years later she took the island of Minorca, in the Mediterranean, which became a very useful station for her fleet.

4. In the New World, too, there was fighting between the French and English. The English invaded the French settlements several times, and in 1710 the capital of Acadie was taken. A fleet was also sent out to conquer Canada, but some of the ships were wrecked in a storm, and the expedition came to nothing.

5. In 1713 the long war was brought to an end by the Treaty of Utrecht. France was exhausted, her fleet was destroyed, and all her armies had been defeated by Marlborough, so the treaty was very

America after the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713



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favourable to the English. In America England gained Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, which was the south-eastern corner of Canada, and the land round Hudson Bay. In Europe she kept Gibraltar and Minorca, which she had taken from Spain, and took the right to share in the Spanish slave-trade as well. This treaty put an end to the first struggle between France and England, which had only been interrupted for five years by the Treaty of Ryswick. The war had been brought on because the ambition of Louis XIV. threatened the freedom of both England and Holland, and at the end of the struggle France had been beaten, had lost some of her colonies in North America, and had been made to agree that the crowns of France and Spain should not be held by the same king. Spain had lost Gibraltar and Minorca. Holland, though she was on the winning side, was so worn out by the long struggle that she was never able to win back her



WILLIAM DAMPIER

former greatness. England, on the other hand, had gained important advantages. She had won new lands in America, she had taken strong stations for her navy like Gibraltar, and, above all, she had proved more stoutly than ever her claim to the command of the sea. A great naval writer says: "Before that time England was one of the sea-powers; after it she was *the* sea-power, without any second."

6. Before we go on to the second struggle between France and England in the eighteenth century, we must stop to notice two important events which had happened during the war. In 1700 the first Englishman, Dampier, visited Australia. Long before, the Portuguese, the Spaniards, and the Dutch had caught sight of this unknown land; but Dampier was the first man who ever tried to explore it. But after he had landed, the country seemed to him so sandy and waterless that he sailed away, and no one thought much more about it till Captain Cook explored it again eighty years later.

7. The other important event was the Union of England and Scotland in 1707. The crowns of the two countries had been joined ever since 1603, when King James of Scotland became King of England too, and called himself James I. It was at this time that we find the beginning of the Union Jack; for King James ordered the cross of St. Andrew to be added to the cross of St. George, and the new flag was called the Union Jack, in memory of the first king who reigned over both England and Scotland. For a hundred years after this, each country kept its own parliament, and it was not till 1707 that England and Scotland

were really joined together so as to make one country. In that year the wise men of both countries met together and decided to form one parliament for Great Britain: for the Scots wished to share in the great empire of England and its trade, and the English wanted the help of the Scots in their foreign wars and in defending and colonising their possessions across the seas. So, after 1707, the kingdom of England became the kingdom of Great Britain, and the English Empire became the British Empire.

CHAPTER XV

SECOND STRUGGLE BETWEEN FRANCE AND ENGLAND

"'Tis true that we are in great danger;
The greater therefore should our courage be."

SHAKESPEARE, *Henry V.*

1. Two years after the Treaty of Utrecht, Louis XIV., whose ambitions had brought on the last war, died, and his successor was anxious for peace. Spain, who could not forgive England for having taken Gibraltar, made one attempt to win it back; but the other nations would not allow her to break the Treaty of Utrecht, and so her attempt failed. In 1739, however, the old quarrel broke out again. Spain forbade other nations to trade with her colonies. The British resented this and carried on a great smuggling trade with the Spanish colonies. Spain was determined to stop this smuggling, so she claimed the right to search all British ships on the high seas. If the English had

let her do this, their trade with the West Indies would have been ruined, and, rather than give way, they went to war. But the Spanish war of 1739 was only the prelude to a new struggle between France and England, for the next year it grew into a much greater conflict, in which most of the other countries took part. This was called the War of the Austrian Succession, in which, once again, England and France found themselves on opposite sides. We shall see later how the struggle between them spread all over the world, so that they were fighting, not only in Europe alone, but in America, on the high seas, and in far-off India as well. As in the previous struggle, the real question was whether France or England was to be the predominant influence in the New World. French rule, still based on the Feudal System, was much more tyrannical, whereas English life, accustomed to the freer mingling of classes in English society, and deeply penetrated by the ideals of the Puritan revolution, tended to give colonists a greater taste for freedom.

2. The war began in 1740 when France agreed to help Spain to win back Gibraltar and Minorca, and to attack the British colonies in America. England soon found that it was France, and not Spain, which was her most important enemy. This second struggle, like the previous one, fell into two halves. The first half, as in the earlier case, was indecisive, and was brought to an end in 1748 by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. This treaty was really only a truce, entered into because both sides were too exhausted to bring the war to a decisive close; so each side returned to the other the conquests it had made.

Thus the real question of whether France or England was to be supreme in the New World was left unsettled.

3. On these conditions no lasting peace could be made, and eight years later, in 1756, the conflict broke out again. This second half of the war is called the Seven Years' War, and is almost the most important of all the wars that England has fought in defence of her Commonwealth. In the beginning, France was much stronger than England, but, as in the last war, she divided her strength and her attention between two aims, while England thought only of one: England wanted to maintain her supremacy by sea, and to keep her possessions in the New World; France wanted the first place in the New World and in the Old World as well; so, besides fighting England by sea, she took a great share in the war in Europe which was to settle whether Austria or Prussia was to be master of Germany.

4. At that time the affairs of Great Britain were in the hands of William Pitt, who is better known as the Earl of Chatham, to distinguish him from his son, the younger William Pitt. Chatham, who became Prime Minister at the beginning of the war, was one of the greatest statesmen that England has ever had. Before all things he loved his country; he saw clearly the dangers that beset her. "I know that I can save this country," he said, "and I know that no other man can." While other men were thinking only of the difficulties and dangers of their own time, Chatham looked far ahead. He saw that the war was not being fought to defend Britain alone. He looked out across the sea and saw her possessions in every land, and

understood what a mighty future lay before them, if



THE RIGHT HON. WILLIAM PITT, PAYMASTER OF THE FORCES, AFTERWARDS EARL OF CHATHAM

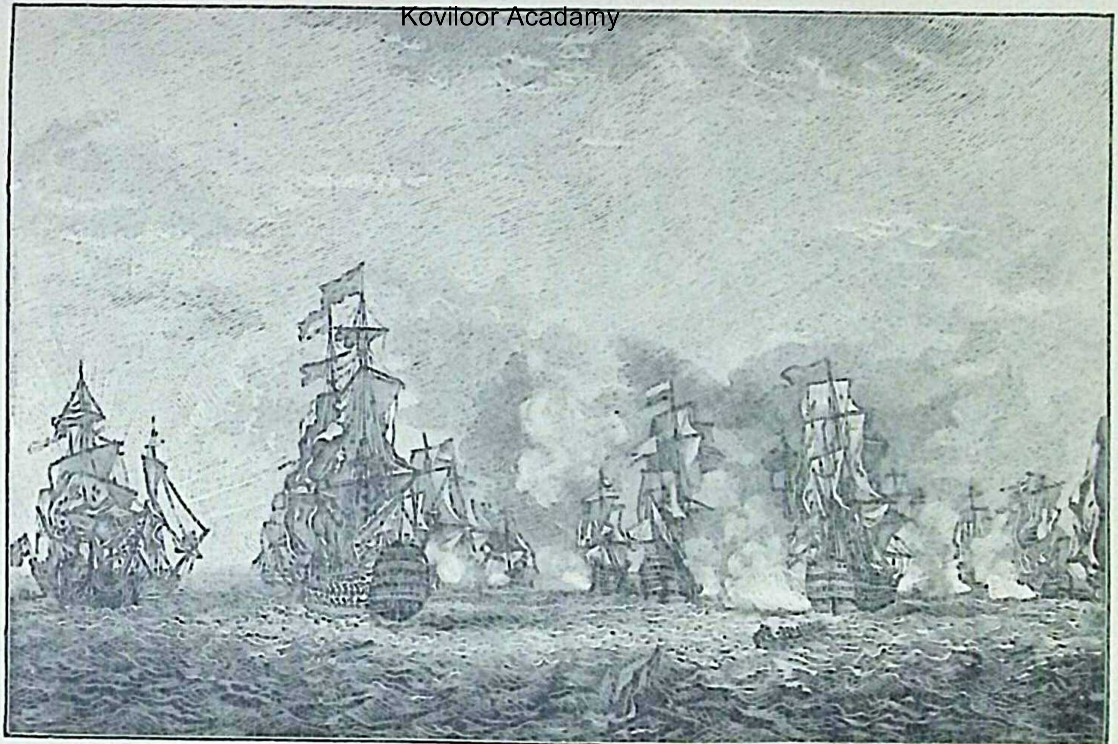
(From a painting by Hoare)

only all these possessions could be kept under the Union Jack. And so his whole life was spent in the

service of his country, and he breathed his own high spirit into his fellow-countrymen. As one of his friends said of him: "No one ever left Mr. Pitt's closet who did not feel himself braver when he came out than when he went in."

5. When the Seven Years' War broke out, France took the part of Austria against Prussia, so Chatham sided with Frederick the Great of Prussia. He saw that even France would never be able to carry on a struggle in Europe and in America and India at the same time, and he determined that England should not make the same mistake. So he decided to help Frederick the Great by sending him money to raise armies for his wars in Europe, while he kept all the fighting power of England for her own wars against France, in America and India, and on the sea.

6. The first thing Chatham had to do was to destroy the French fleet, so that England might be able to pursue the struggle over the sea, without fear of an attack from behind. In the earlier part of the war the French had learnt that they could never defeat England, or take her possessions from her, unless they had a fleet that could destroy the British fleet; so during the years of peace they had built themselves a strong navy. At first they won some victories; they took Minorca, then they tried to send reinforcements to Canada, and finally they made a bold plan to invade England herself. But England had a famous admiral, the greatest since the days of Blake—the great Lord Hawke. Hawke's great idea in fighting was that "the enemy must never be allowed to escape." So when he discovered that the French



The Defeat of Part of the French Fleet, collected for the Invasion of England, by Admiral Boscawen, off Cape Lagos in Portugal, August 1759

(From a picture by R. Paton)

were preparing to send help to their colonies in Canada, he fell upon their fleet of five battleships and forty transports just as they were ready to start. As he himself wrote afterwards: "At five next morning I saw them all aground." The French in Canada cried in vain for help, for not one of all that fleet started on its journey.

7. The same fate befell the fleet that the French had collected for the invasion of England. Unfortunately for them, they allowed it to become divided into two parts. One of these squadrons was defeated by Admiral Boscawen off the coast of Portugal. The other managed to escape, but Hawke was not to be denied, and chased it northwards until he came up with it at the mouth of Quiberon Bay, on the west coast of France. The question then was, could he attack it, for a furious gale was raging, and he had not even a chart of that dangerous coast. But the enemy was within his reach, and that was enough for Hawke. His pilot advised him to go no further, but he said, "You have done your duty by warning me: now obey my orders and lay me alongside the French admiral." A great battle was fought, the French fleet was completely destroyed, and so the fear of invasion passed away. Hawke lived many years longer, but he never fought another battle, for there was no enemy's fleet left for him to fight. Chatham was therefore able to turn all his attention to the wars in the East and the West, for the British navy held the command of the sea.

CHAPTER XVI

SEVEN YEARS' WAR IN AMERICA [1]

1. THE rest of the war falls into two parts—the struggle in America and the war in India. In America the old quarrel between the French and English as to which was to be the chief power in the New World was still unsettled. You remember that the English colonies stretched along the coast, from Florida in the south to the Gulf of the St. Lawrence in the north; and that the French held Canada from the mouth of the St. Lawrence up to the Great Lakes, and Louisiana along the banks of the Mississippi. But if you look at your map, you will see that behind the English colonies, and between the two parts of the French possessions, lay the valley of the Ohio River, and it was over this valley that the fighting began. The French wanted it because they were anxious to join their two colonies into one strong country. But the English also wanted it, because they saw that if they once allowed the French to take it and fortify it, they themselves would soon be shut in along the narrow strip of land between the Alleghany Mountains and the sea. And behind this rivalry was the question of whether French or British civilisation was to be predominant on the North American continent.

2. Even before the regular war broke out, fighting had begun. The French strengthened their position

[1] See map on p. 94.

by building a chain of forts along the Ohio. The English could not allow this move to go unanswered, so they sent an army under General Braddock to attack the chief of these forts, but Braddock was caught in an ambush of French and Indians, and he was killed and his army defeated. This was the state of things in America when the Seven Years' War began in 1756, and new troops were sent out from England and France to assist the colonists in the struggle for the New World.

3. The French were fewer in number than the English, but they were led by a brave and clever general called Montcalm, whom the English for a long time were unable to defeat. Chatham saw that the strength of the French position lay in the fact that they were in possession of the two great waterways into the interior of America—the St. Lawrence, which ran into the heart of the country from the east, and the Mississippi, which was the road from the south. Chatham realised that if the French were able to plant themselves firmly along both these rivers it would be almost impossible to dislodge them. So he planned that a naval expedition should seize Louisburg, the great French fortress commanding the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and that an army should push boldly westwards, and by capturing some of the French forts, separate Canada from Louisiana, and so hold open the gateway to the West to the British colonists.

4. Chatham's plan was successful. In 1758 Boscawen took Louisburg, and in the same year the English attacked the French forts in the Ohio valley, and although Montcalm gained a victory at Ticonde-

roga, one after another the forts fell into the hands of the English. The fate of Canada seemed sealed, for the French had lost control of the St. Lawrence, their colonies were cut in two, and as the British navy was supreme by sea, they could not obtain help from France. But Montcalm was a brave man and would not allow that he was beaten, so he took up a very strong position at Quebec and prepared to defend himself as long as he could. Chatham saw that if Montcalm could be defeated, and Quebec captured, Canada would be won, and he looked out for a general he could trust, and the man he chose was James Wolfe.

5. Wolfe was only thirty-two, and we are told that he was a "remarkably ugly boy, with a shock of red hair and a turned-up nose." During part of his life, too, he was in very bad health. No one who saw him could believe he would ever make a general. But Wolfe had a great heart in his weakly body. He was as brave as a lion, and once he had set his hand to a task would never give in until he had accomplished it. He was a keen soldier, and joined the army when he was only fifteen. By the time he was twenty-one he had fought in seven campaigns and was already a colonel. Wolfe was one of the generals at the taking of Louisburg, and he had a great share in the victory. The place had to be attacked in boats, but the French opened so hot a fire that it did not seem possible to get near it. Then Wolfe saw that there was a part of the beach which their guns could not reach, and there he collected his men, with the result that the last attack was successful. When he went back to

England soon afterwards he was called the "hero of Louisburg."

6. Chatham saw what a fine fellow Wolfe was, and though he was quite young gave him command of the



GENERAL WOLFE

(From the painting by Schaak in the National Portrait Gallery)

Canadian expedition. So Wolfe set out from England in the spring of 1759 with fresh troops to carry out his great task of capturing Canada from the French king. When he arrived he found that Montcalm had 16,000 men, and had placed them on a very strong position, on part of the great rock of Quebec, called the Heights of Abraham. Wolfe had only 9000, but he was not

dismayed. "If I stay here till November," he said, "I will take it." Montcalm was too wise to move from his position, and Wolfe was not strong enough to drive him from it, so he could only wait, always hoping to find some way of getting at his enemy. But week after week went by, and still he seemed no nearer to carrying out his task. At last he fell ill, "sick at heart and ill in body," but, weak as he was, rather than give in, he devised a daring plan for taking Quebec, just as it seemed quite hopeless to do so.

7. One night he took his army in boats, with muffled oars, up the river to a place where a tiny steep path winds up the Heights of Abraham. This place has been called Wolfe's Cove ever since. Twenty-five Highlanders dashed up the little path and surprised the French soldiers who were keeping guard on the top, and then the rest of the army scrambled up. In the morning, the French saw the whole British army spread out in front of them in battle array. Montcalm's strong position was turned, and he was forced to fight on level terms. The French were the first to advance. The English waited till they had come quite close, and then poured a tremendous fire on them. The French line was broken, the English charged, and the battle was won. But in the very moment of his victory Wolfe was hit by a bullet and fell, mortally wounded. A little later he heard a cry: "They run!" "Who run?" he asked, and when he was told it was the French, he said, "God be praised! I die content," and fell back dead. This battle was decisive, for Wolfe's brave enemy Montcalm was killed almost at the same moment. It was truly said, "The

funeral of Montcalm was the funeral of New France," for soon afterwards Quebec was taken, and in a short time the whole of Canada, France's strongest colony, fell into the hands of the English. This brought the war in America to a close; for the Union Jack was raised in Canada, where it has flown ever since.

CHAPTER XVII

THE WAR IN INDIA[1]

1. We have said that the second great struggle against France spread all over the world. In India as well as in Europe and America, Great Britain and France were fighting each other. You remember that in the last century the English East India Company had set up three fortified stations in India, at Madras, Calcutta, and Bombay, and after the Dutch had been defeated, as we have read, the British became the greatest traders in the East. But in 1664 a French East India Company was founded, which set up a great station at Pondicherry, not far from Madras, and began to trade all over the south of India. When the second struggle between France and England began, the Governor of the French East India Company was a very clever and ambitious man called Dupleix, who was not satisfied with trading with India, but wanted to found a great French Empire there as well. At that time the whole country was in a fearful state of confusion. The different princes of India were fighting with one another, and Dupleix saw what a splendid chance

[1] See map on p. 178.



THE DEATH OF WOLFE BEFORE QUEBEC

(Reduced from Longmans' Historical Wall Pictures by Henry J. Ford)

this was for carrying out his plans. So he took advantage of the quarrels of the Indian princes, which followed the decline of the Mogul Empire, to spread his influence among them, and gradually he



JOSEPH DUPLEIX

came to be one of the most powerful men in the south of India.

2. But Dupleix soon found that before he could build a strong French Empire he must drive the English out of India altogether, and in 1746 a great struggle began between the French and English East India Companies. To begin with, neither side had an army, because up to that time their Indian settlements

had only been peaceful trading stations, so Dupleix enlisted a lot of Indians and put them under European officers, and these Sepoys, as they were called, became excellent soldiers. The English did the same thing, and to this day most of the Indian army is made up of Indian soldiers. Gradually this struggle between two private companies came to form part of the larger war between France and England. When the fighting first began, the French had the best of it. They had a very strong fleet in the Indian Ocean, which took Madras in 1746; but when, two years later, the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle stopped for a few years the war between France and England, they had to hand it back again. The East India Companies, however, took no notice of the treaty, and went on fighting one another for the first place in India.

3. At that time there was a young Englishman in Madras, called Robert Clive. He had been a wild and wayward boy, and his family had sent him out to be a clerk with the East India Company, thinking that "he would either make a fortune or die of fever." But Clive was active and ambitious, and longed for a more exciting kind of life than sitting in an office. So when war broke out, he offered to go and fight, and soon showed that instead of being the idle good-for-nothing his friends had thought him, he was a splendid soldier and leader of men. He was clear-sighted, quick, and fearless, and his men soon learnt to love and trust him. They came to believe that "whenever he led, victory followed, and throughout India he was known as 'Sabat yang, the daring in war'." In 1751 Clive led an army of Sepoys against Arcot, a town belonging to

an Indian prince who was a friend of Dupleix. As he came near the town, a tremendous thunderstorm came on, and the garrison were so astonished to see that Clive was not afraid, that they did not even wait to



LORD CLIVE

From an engraving by G. Stodart of the painting by N. Dana, R.A.

fight, but ran away and left the town in his hands. A little later, when Clive was besieged in Arcot, an Indian prince, hearing what a brave fight he was making, sent him help, because, as he said, "I never thought till now that the English could fight, but, as they can, I will help them."

4. In 1754 the two Companies agreed to stop

fighting, and, Dupleix being called back to France soon after, for two years there was peace in India between them. But no sooner was a truce arranged with France in the south of India, than the British found that they had to fight a new enemy in the north. The whole of India, except the very south, was at this time supposed to be under the rule of the Mogul Emperors, who lived at Delhi. But the emperors had grown weak and had very little power, and the viziers or rulers of the provinces into which the land was divided had really become almost independent princes. One of these viziers—Siraj-ud-Daulah—who governed the province of Bengal in the north-east of India, resented the growing power of the English and picked a quarrel with them. In 1756 he made a sudden attack and took their station at Calcutta. He was a cruel man, and allowed his soldiers to shut 148 of his English prisoners in a tiny room, known as the "Black Hole of Calcutta," and leave them there without a drop of water through the hot summer night. All night long they struggled for breath and screamed for water in that dreadful cell. But nobody came, and the cries and sobs gradually died down. When the door was opened in the morning, only twenty-five were found alive; the other 123 had been suffocated or trampled to death.

5. No sooner did this dreadful news reach Madras than Clive collected all the men he could find and set out to punish Siraj-ud-Daulah. His tiny army of Englishmen and Sepoys met the Indian prince with his 50,000 men at Plassey. Some of Clive's officers thought defeat certain, and tried to persuade him not

to fight. But he was determined to avenge the Black Hole of Calcutta, and won a great victory. Siraj-ud-Daulah was driven out, and one of his officers who had helped the English was put in his place. This battle, which was fought in 1757, has been called the foundation of the British Empire in India. Up to this time the East India Company had only traded with Indians, and had not governed any part of the country. But the defeat of Siraj-ud-Daulah forced it to interfere in Indian affairs, so as to protect its officials from attack and make sure that they could live safely and in peace. Once the British began to try to improve the system of government in India they could not stop, and so their influence spread farther and farther, and the English dominions in India grew and grew, until at last they covered the whole country. But we shall learn all about this in a later chapter.

6. While this war with the Indians had been going on in the north, the Seven Years' War had broken out in Europe and America, as we have seen, and the struggle between French and English for control of the south of India had commenced once more. At first the French gained some success. In 1758 they attacked Madras, and an English fleet only came up just in time to save it. But soon the sea-power of England began to tell, for she was able to send out help to her people as she liked, while the French cried out to their Government in vain. Bit by bit the French were driven back. In 1760 Sir Eyre Coote defeated them at Wandewash, and when their great fortified station at Pondicherry was taken soon afterwards, all their hopes of creating a French Empire in

India disappeared. So Chatham's wisdom led England to victory in India as well as in America. In both these countries the fighting was over by 1761, because British sea-power prevented the French from sending reinforcements to their armies when they were in sore need of them. But the war dragged on in Europe for two years longer. At last, in 1763, the Peace of Paris was signed, and the second great struggle between England and France was brought to an end.

7. Now, look at the map and you will see how, in defending herself against France, England had increased the British Empire all over the world. She had conquered Canada from France, and won Florida from Spain, so that the Union Jack flew proudly over all the east of North America. She had taken four islands, Tobago, Grenada, St. Vincent, and Dominica, in the West Indies, and Senegal in Africa, besides winning back Minorca in the Mediterranean. In India the power of France had disappeared, and Britain had begun the task of organising government among the millions of Indian people. Finally, she had proved more clearly than ever that she was Mistress of the Sea. Chatham's plan had been successful, and, by helping the enemies of France in the Old World, England had greatly increased the area under British rule in the New.

CHAPTER XVIII

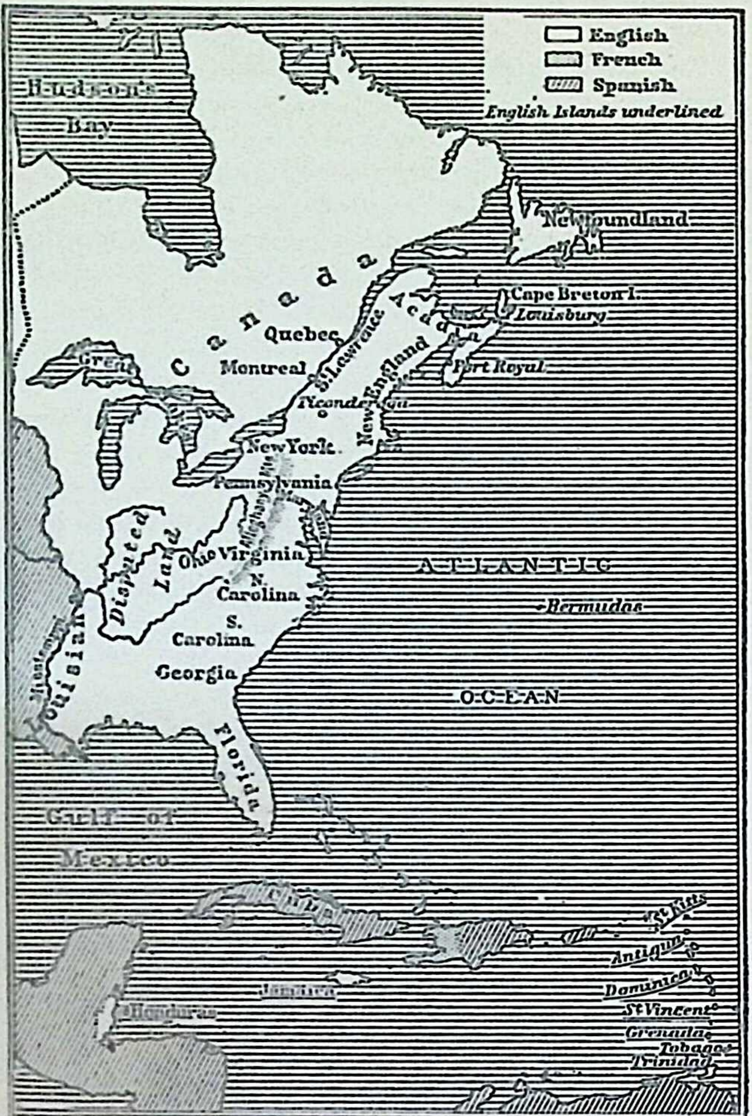
THE AMERICAN REVOLT[1]

1. We have come now to a very sad period in the history of the Empire, for, instead of the glories and triumphs of the last war, we have to learn how the Empire broke in two and England lost all her colonies in America, except Canada and Newfoundland. In those days it was not possible for England and her colonies to be as closely united as they are nowadays. To begin with, they knew very little about each other, for there were no telegraphs or steamers, scarcely any newspapers, and letters often took twice as long to cross the Atlantic then as they do on the whole long sea journey from London to New Zealand now. Besides, the only way of travelling backwards and forwards across the wide ocean was in tiny sailing ships, which were very uncomfortable, and which were often swallowed up in the waves; therefore only adventurous people would sail in them, and there was no constant stream of people journeying to America and Canada and back as there is to-day, bringing news from one part of the Empire to another.

2. So it was that people in Great Britain understood very little about New England, and most of the New England settlers had been so long in America that they had almost forgotten what the British Isles were like. These settlers, too, were strong men, and had learnt to be independent, for they had to make a living in a new country where life was rough and hard,

[1] See map on p. 71.

AMERICA AFTER THE TREATY OF PARIS, 1763



GEORGE PHILIP & SON LTD

Longmans, Green & Co. London, New York, Bombay & Calcutta.

and where they had constant battles with the French and the Indians, and among themselves. As long as Canada belonged to France they needed the help of the British fleet and British soldiers to protect them from the French. But once their old enemy had been driven out, they no longer felt the need of England's help, and so they began to think more and more of their grievances against their Mother-country.

3. In those days the idea that the real colonies—that is, overseas settlements of Englishmen—might come to be partners in a big Empire was very uncommon. People still believed that when a country founded colonies, they were her very own to do what she liked with. The American colonies were then most valuable because of their trade, so all sorts of laws were passed for them, compelling them only to trade with their Mother-country, though, in return, they had certain advantages over foreigners in trading with England. These laws did not greatly harm the American settlers, for in any case almost all their trade would have been with the British Isles, but they were troublesome, and the colonists grew more and more annoyed with them. Unfortunately for the Empire, the wise Chatham had ceased to be Prime Minister just before the Treaty of Paris, and King George III.'s new ministers were short-sighted men who did not stop to think of the feelings of the New Englanders, and were hasty and tactless, and so before long a quarrel broke out. As we shall see, it was not so much what King George's ministers wanted to do, as the way in which they did it, that brought about the war.

4. Great Britain had spent a great deal of money

in defending the New Englanders from the French in the last war, and her ministers said it was only fair that the colonies should contribute their share. So they wanted to tax them in order to pay for a small army in America. But though the taxes were very light, the colonies would not pay them, for they said that as they sent no members to the British Parliament, it had no right to tax them without their own consent. The quarrel went on for some time, and the English ministers kept changing their minds. Some of them wanted to force the colonies to obey, and others said that it was the colonies who were in the right, and that Great Britain could not lay taxes on them. In the end most of the taxes were taken off, except a new one on tea; but by this time the Americans were so angry that, when three ships came into Boston Harbour laden with tea, they would not allow it to be landed, and a lot of them, dressed up as Indians, rushed on board and emptied it all into the water. When the news of this Boston Tea-party, as they called it, reached England, the Government thought it was time to punish the rebels, and passed some very severe Acts. But the Americans called them the Intolerable Acts, and refused to obey them. There was no longer any hope of keeping the peace, and in 1775 war broke out.



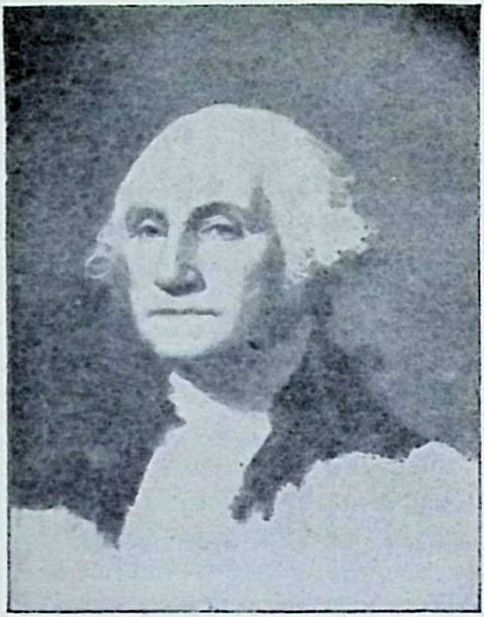
One of the Stamps as appointed to be used under George Grenville's Stamp Act of 1765 for the purpose of raising Taxes in America

5. The American War can be divided into two periods. In the first period it was a civil war inside the Empire, between the Mother-country and some of her colonies, and all the fighting took place in America. In the second period, it grew into a world-wide struggle with France, Spain, and Holland, and most of the fighting took place at sea. In fact, it became the third of the great struggles between France and England for the first influence in the world. In this chapter we will only trace the history of the first period.

6. The rebellion began in Massachusetts and the New England colonies in the north, but it soon spread to Virginia and the Southern colonies, and in 1774 a great congress of representatives from all parts met at Philadelphia to settle on a plan of action. The rebels tried hard to persuade the French in Canada to join them, but without success, for the Canadians had been very well treated by the British Government since 1763, and had been allowed to keep their religion and their language, which they loved dearly. They still hated their old enemies, the New Englanders, and feared that, if they helped them to defeat the British, they would turn round on the Canadians and rob them of their religion and their language. When the attempt at persuasion failed, the rebels tried to use force, and sent an army into Canada which took Montreal and laid siege to Quebec. But in the end it was defeated, and, after 1776, Canada was left in peace.

7. When the war broke out the colonists had no real army with which to fight the English; but a great leader rose up, called George Washington, who collected all the men who were eager to fight, and drilled

them into an army which soon showed it could face the trained soldiers that were sent out from England. Fighting began in 1775. In the next year representatives of the thirteen rebel colonies met together and signed a Declaration of Independence, which said that they were free and would no longer be subject to the crown of Great Britain. From this time the inhabitants of the New England colonies have been called Americans. Several battles were fought, and at first the Americans were defeated, but Washington would not give in; and the English general was so slow and lazy that he always let the enemy escape just when he had them in his grasp. At last the British planned a great campaign to divide the colonies of the South from the colonies of the North, so as to be able to beat them each in turn. But the plan failed, for one of the English generals,



GEORGE WASHINGTON

Sir John Burgoyne, when trying to carry it out, was caught by the Americans in the marshes of Saratoga in 1777, and had to surrender with all his army. This ended the first period of the war. England was now by no means likely to crush the rebellion. When, in 1781, Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown, her statesmen were obliged to sign the Treaty of Versailles, 1783, by which the independence of the American states was recognised.[1]

8. The loss of the American colonies was a sad blow to England. It broke up the unity of the English-speaking world. It was due partly to the ignorance and the domineering tendencies of the governing classes in England, and partly to the narrow-sightedness of the American colonists. But it also had great advantages. Both sides learnt much from the lesson. On the one hand, the English saw that their outside possessions could no longer be governed from London, and that they would remain within the Empire only as long as the English encouraged the same growth of liberty and political responsibility overseas as they had won for themselves at home. What has been called the Old Colonial System was dead. Eventually the free principles upon which the British Commonwealth of to-day rests were to emerge as a result of the bitter experience of the American revolution. On the other hand, the Americans soon discovered that no great community could be founded upon a mere assertion of independence and a refusal to take their share of responsibility for common affairs with their neighbours. The lesson that liberty must be

[1] The republic did not come into being till 1787.

combined with unity they learnt in the years following the revolution, during which, after many trials and under the sagacious leadership of George Washington, they forged the first federal constitution in the world. This constitution, which has been the model for all similar constitutions, has enabled the American people not only to spread their influence and institutions right across the continent to the Pacific Ocean, but to teach successfully tens of millions of immigrants from Europe what citizenship of a free country means. So that though the peoples of Great Britain and America were not able to preserve both unity and liberty at this time, they both learnt a great deal from the separation. The War of Independence in no wise hindered the spread of the Anglo-Saxon civilisation and of the political ideas developed in England throughout the world, and, as we shall see, the Great War against German militarism united the two peoples once more, not under a single political head, but in common action for a common ideal.

CHAPTER XIX

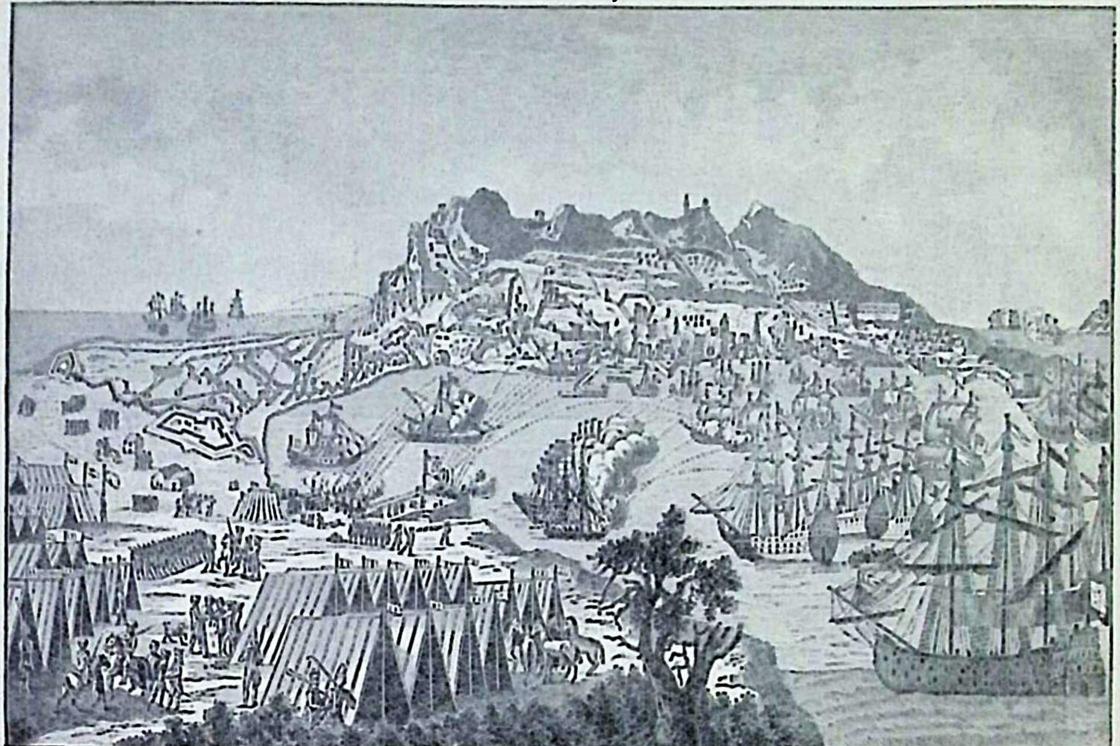
THE THIRD STRUGGLE AGAINST FRANCE [1]

1. The second period of the American War forms part of the third great struggle between France and England. The French had never forgiven the British for defeating them in Canada and India, and were longing to recover their position; so when they saw

[1] See map on p. 71 for American War; see map on p. 20 for European War; see map on p. 178 for Indian War.

that the Americans really meant to fight their Mother-country and had won some victories, they sided with them and declared war on England. Spain also joined, for she was anxious to win back Gibraltar. The American War now grew into a great sea-war, and England found that she had to defend her Empire all the world over against the French and Spanish fleets. Both her enemies saw that if they could destroy her sea-power the huge Empire would fall to pieces, and they would be able to divide it between them. So while they helped Washington on land, they also did their best to defeat the British navy on the sea.

2. But not only had England to fight France, Spain, and the Americans. She was unpopular with the other Powers of Europe as well. Her victories in the last war had made them jealous of her power, and now she made them angry by claiming the right to search the ships of every country on the seas, so as to stop them from trading with her enemies. Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark said that England had no right to do this, and they formed what was called the Armed Neutrality of the North, which meant that they were ready to declare war against her at any time. Holland actually joined in the war in 1780, and added her fleet to the fleets of France and Spain. England, on the other hand, had no friends to help her, and was clearly in grave peril. It was at this time of danger, too, that she lost her greatest minister. Chatham was ill and dying; but, even so, he insisted on being carried to the House of Lords for the last time to urge his country to fight on to the end.



THE SIEGE OF GIBRALTAR, 1781

(From a contemporary print)

The Siege lasted from June 1779 to February 1783

"Seventeen years ago," he began, "this people was the terror of the world——" He could say no more, but fell back, and was taken home to die. Happily the navy was strong and well equipped, and a great sailor, Rodney—"the greatest of English seamen save Blake and Nelson"—was at the head of it.

3. First of all let us see what happened in the New World. Owing to the number of her enemies in Europe, England could not send her generals in America all the help they wanted. She had first of all to defend herself at home. So her armies in America dwindled away through war and sickness, and Washington and the French gradually drove them back to the coast, until the British general, Cornwallis, found himself shut up at Yorktown, with Washington in front of him and the French fleet in the bay behind. At last, in October 1781, hunger and sickness forced him to surrender with all his army. Five days later the British fleet came up with help, but it was too late. The war in America was at an end, and the Americans had won their independence. England had lost her first colonies because her enemies had grown strong enough to interfere with her command of the seas, and while she was fighting for sea-power the Americans had won the day. But this made her all the more determined to defeat France and Spain, and to prevent these great monarchies from destroying the Empire.

4. In this later struggle there were three great battlefields—one off the coast of Europe, one in India and the Indian Ocean, and one in the West Indian seas. At first it looked as if the weight of this war

all over the world was too great to bear. For while her colonies were breaking from her in America, England lost Minorca in Europe, and France took one after another of her islands in the West Indies. But in 1780 Rodney destroyed the Spanish fleet in a great battle off Cape St. Vincent; and for four long years General Elliott held Gibraltar against the combined forces of France and Spain. It was chiefly for the sake of winning back Gibraltar that Spain had joined the war, and so, towards the end of the four years' siege, in 1782, she determined to make a final effort to take it. The last battle was a terrific artillery duel. For four days and nights 400 guns from the fleets of France and Spain bombarded the rock, and nearly as many cannon replied. At length the British gunners took to using red-hot shot. This plan was successful, for soon afterwards some of the enemies' ships began to catch fire, and one by one they blew up, until the fleets had to retire. Gibraltar was saved, for a day or two later Lord Howe came up with his ships and relieved the garrison. It was owing to this victory that the great natural fort which guards the entry to the Mediterranean is still a part of the Empire.

5. The second great battlefield between the French and the English was in India. Ever since the East India Company had begun to take a share in the government of India, after Siraj-ud-Daulah's attack on Calcutta, it had had trouble with its neighbours; and although the French no longer had any territory in India, they were always ready to stir up the Indians against the English and to send armies and fleets to help them. At this time the Governor of India was

Warren Hastings, a wise, energetic man, who at once took steps to foil their plans. The trouble began near Bombay with a fierce people called the Mahrattas, who were the terror of all the centre of India. Hastings sent an army across the middle of India, from Calcutta to Bombay, a thing no one thought was possible, and the Mahrattas were defeated. Then he turned his attention to the south, where the French had encouraged Haider Ali, the Sultan of Mysore, to attack the English. Once again Hastings sent help, and Haider Ali was defeated by Sir Eyre Coote (who, you remember, won the battle of Wandewash in the last war). The French also sent out a fleet filled with soldiers to land in India, and Admiral Hughes had to fight five desperate battles before he could drive them



WARREN HASTINGS

(From an engraving by C. J. Tomkins)

away. The chief result of this unsuccessful French attack on India was to increase the power of the East India Company, for the war had forced them to conquer and to rule over a large part of India.

6. The third battlefield between the French and the British was in the West Indies. At first the French took several of the islands belonging to Great Britain. But before the end of the war England won all their possessions back by the great battle of the Saints, in 1782. This was Rodney's most famous victory. Indeed it is one of the greatest victories that has ever been won by the British fleet, and from this time the supremacy of her fleet by sea has never been lost.

CHAPTER XX

THE END OF THE THIRD STRUGGLE AGAINST FRANCE [1]

1. By this time all Europe was tired of the war. The English colonists in America had won their freedom, and France and Spain saw that they could not break England's power on the sea, so every one was glad to make peace, and the Treaty of Versailles was signed in 1783. Great Britain agreed to the independence of the American colonies, which have ever since been called the United States; she gave up Florida and Minorca to Spain, and the West Indian Islands of Tobago and Santa Lucia to France. On the other hand, she kept Nagapatnam, a town she had taken from the Dutch in India; and she recovered

[1] See map on p. 137.

Dominica, St. Vincent, St. Kitts, and some other islands in the West Indies, which France had seized at the beginning of the war.

2. The loss of the American colonies was a sad blow to England. But the rise of America had one marked effect: it made Canada a strong and loyal part of the Empire. When the Rebellion broke out, there were about three million people in the American colonies. They did not all approve of the revolt, and about one million of them chose to be faithful to the King and the Empire, and refused to fight against the Mother-country. They called themselves the United Empire loyalists, and they had to suffer many cruel hardships during the war. When it was over, many of them were forced to cross over the border into Canada, where they were given land and money by the British Government.

3. These were the first British colonists in Canada. They settled in two groups, one on each side of the Province of Quebec, where most of the French lived. The one group went to live along Lake Ontario, high up on the St. Lawrence near the Niagara Falls; the other settled near the mouth of the St. Lawrence on the south bank, where they founded the two colonies of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. At first these colonists had many troubles, but they set to work bravely to make new homes, and finally prospered. They were proud of the name they had won, and their descendants, who are still some of the strongest and most enterprising people in Canada, have always held fast to the idea of an United Empire.

4. So that the effect of the American War of Inde-

pendence on Canada was twofold. In the first place it led to the settlement of a large number of British in Canada, which had previously only been inhabited by the French. In the second place it created a strong bond of common interest between French and British in Canada and the people of the British Isles, for both were anxious to protect the frontiers of Canada from invasion by the Americans to the south. As we shall see later, it was not very long (1812) before such an invasion was made.



CAPTAIN COOK

5. The American War of Independence had another strange result. You remember that Dampier visited Australia in 1700. From that time for nearly seventy years nobody seems to have thought any more about it. It is not very surprising, for a great part of the shore of Australia nearest to Europe is rocky and stony, and you have to go some way inland before you come to water and rich soils. Besides, as there were very few natives in Australia, few signs of cultivation were to be seen, and so it looked at first as if the whole country was a desert. About 1768, however, Captain Cook made several voyages to explore

those southern seas, as people had long had an idea that there was a great continent in that part of the world which reached all the way to the South Pole. Captain Cook soon learnt that there was no continent stretching to the South Pole, but he found that New Zealand was made up of two islands, and discovered a great many other islands in the Pacific Ocean. He also explored the coast of New South Wales in Australia, and brought home the news that it was a rich country and good for settlement.

6. Just at the time that Captain Cook came back with his stories of Australia, the British Government were in a strange difficulty. For a long time they had been getting rid of convicts, prisoners, and unruly characters by transporting them to the American colonies to work for the Government there. These convicts were not all wicked men, as you might suppose. In those days people were put in prison for much smaller reasons than they are now, and a great many of the convicts were merely poachers, and men and women who were noisy and independent. When the American colonies broke away from the Empire, it was no longer possible to send the convicts there, and the British Government had to find some place to send them. The need was specially urgent, because the close of the war had brought back to England all sorts of wild and adventurous spirits who were constantly getting into trouble. At last somebody suggested that a colony should be formed in Australia to which all these people should be sent. The idea was carried out, and this is how England came to take what was afterwards to grow into one of the most important

parts of the Commonwealth. She was only just in time, for hardly had her first ship touched the shore than two French men-of-war appeared in the distance. They, too, had thought of taking possession of Australia, but they were just too late. That is how the British Commonwealth is said to have gained Australia by six days.

7. So, though during the third great struggle against France, England had lost America, even that loss had brought her some advantages. For she gained a strong and vigorous people in Canada which was devoted to the Empire; she planted her flag in what was to grow into the great country of Australia; she became the supreme power in India; and she showed the world once more that she was Mistress of the Sea, and would tolerate no interference with her independence.

CHAPTER XXI

THE FINAL STRUGGLE AGAINST FRANCE[1]

1. WE come now to the last chapter in the story of the long struggle of England against the threatening power of France. This was their fourth contest, and it is divided into two separate wars, which together lasted for twenty years, with one year of peace in between. The first was the war of the French Revolution, from 1793 to 1802; the second was the War with Napoleon, from 1803 to 1815.

2. The war came about in the following way. In

[1] See map on p. 20.

1789 a great revolution broke out in France. The people had many grievances against the French king and his ministers, and finally they rose up and overturned the government. Once they had begun they grew more and more violent. They deposed their king and cut off his head, and set up a new government, so cruel and bloodthirsty that it came to be known as the Reign of Terror. The whole of Europe was alarmed at these proceedings. Instead of allowing people in France to quieten down of their own accord, the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria had already engaged in war to try to restore the old order. The French, however, were victorious and proceeded to invade Belgium. This drew England into the war, partly because of her alarm at the excesses of the revolution and partly through fear that French control of shipping at Antwerp would challenge her naval supremacy in the Narrow Seas. France, in turn, was accusing the English Government of giving sympathy and help to the French aristocracy, many of whom had taken up residence in exile in Kent and Surrey.

3. Fortunately for England, she had a strong man for her Prime Minister, and this was William Pitt, son of the great Lord Chatham. Pitt was quite a young man, and had become Prime Minister in 1783 when he was only twenty-five. For ten years he worked to improve England's internal condition and to make her rich and strong. When the Revolution started he tried hard to keep the peace, but when the French invaded Belgium and seized the Scheldt, Pitt joined with other countries of Europe who were

at war with France. The first important battle was fought in 1794, the year following the outbreak of war, when the English defeated the French just outside the Channel, in a sea-fight called the "Glorious First of June." The French had to look around for fresh ships. They therefore seized Holland with its fleet and its colonies, and they also forced Spain to join with them so that they could use her vessels of war as well. Then they made a plan to conquer the British Isles. The French and Spanish fleets were to attack England, while the Dutch fleet was to land an army in Ireland. But Pitt and the British navy were too strong for them, and won two great victories. First the Spanish fleet was utterly defeated off Cape St. Vincent on the coast of Portugal, and then the Dutch were beaten at Camperdown. Both these battles were fought in 1797.

4. It was in the battle of Cape St. Vincent that Nelson first made himself famous, for although he was only one of the younger captains it was he who really won the victory. While the battle was raging, he dashed with his little ship amongst the enemy. Five of the Spanish ships poured their fire upon him, but, nothing daunted, he boarded one of their great vessels and forced her to surrender, and when the Spanish admiral's ship came up to help, he forced that to surrender too. So many Spanish officers came to hand over their swords that he could not take them all, but had to give them to one of his men, who tucked them all under his arm. After this great defeat the French had to give up their plan of invading England, and the British fleet, which was supreme by sea, was

busily engaged in other parts of the world seizing Spanish and Dutch colonies, so as to prevent them from falling into the hands of the French. In this



LORD NELSON

From the picture by Abbot in the National Portrait Gallery

way Cape Colony, Ceylon, Amboyna, and some of the West Indian Islands fell into British hands.

5. While these battles were being fought by sea the French had been continuously fighting on land

as well, and Napoleon Bonaparte had come to the front as their greatest general. He had overthrown many of the feudal kings of Europe, and now he made a plan to build up a great French Empire in the East. First of all he tried to drive the English out of India; so he stirred up the natives to rebel, and sent help to Tippoo, the son of Haider Ali, who was fighting against the English in Mysore. Then he led an army into Egypt and conquered it. But just as he was setting up a French state there, his plans were spoilt by Nelson, who followed him, and caught his fleet and destroyed it near the mouth of the Nile. "The battle of the Nile," said Nelson, "was not a victory, but a conquest." For without a fleet to protect him from attack behind and to bring him supplies and reinforcements from France, Napoleon was powerless. At the same time Tippoo was defeated, and the power of the British in India became stronger than ever. So Napoleon had to go back to France, and from that time he realised that England was the principal obstacle to his ambitious plans, and determined to devote all his energies to destroying her.

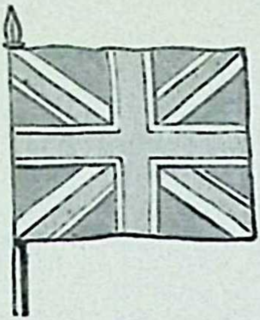
6. Unfortunately for England, Napoleon's armies were all-powerful, and nobody could resist him on land. So one by one he forced the nations of Europe to submit to his will, and to join in league against England, until at last she stood alone against the world. But once more her command of the sea enabled her to keep her freedom. In 1801 Sir Ralph Abercromby drove the last of the French army out of Egypt, and the Danish fleet was destroyed at

Copenhagen. Again it was Nelson who won the victory, although he was not in command of the fleet. In the middle of the battle one of the officers told him that the admiral had put up the signal to stop firing. Nelson knew that if the fight went on a little longer he might still win. "I have only one eye," he said; "I have a right to be blind sometimes"; and then he put his glass to his blind eye and said, "I really do not see the signal," went on with the battle and won it. Afterwards he wrote: "I have been in one hundred and five engagements, but that of to-day is the most terrible of them all."

7. After this reverse Napoleon was anxious for time in which to reorganise his armies and collect a navy. For he saw that until he could conquer England he could never be master of Europe, because England would always be able to help those who rebelled against him, and he knew that he would never conquer England until he could defeat her fleet. The British stood between Napoleon and the domination of the world. So in 1802 the Treaty of Amiens was made, whereby England restored to France, Spain, and Holland all her conquests except Ceylon and Trinidad, and Napoleon abandoned Egypt and the south of Italy. This brought the first stage of the fourth struggle between France and England to a close.

8. During this war a very important step had been taken in the British Isles. Restrictions placed by England on Irish trade had led to the Irish Rebellion of 1798. This had been crushed, and the Irish lost the independence of their parliament. The danger to

the Empire from so many enemies had forced people to see that if they were to be safe they must all be united at home, so in 1801 Ireland was joined to Great Britain, and England, Scotland, and Ireland became the United Kingdom. The Irish began to send members to the British Parliament, in the same way as the English, the Scots, and the Welsh. At the same time the cross of St. Patrick was added to the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew on the British flag, and so, for the first time, the Union Jack floated out upon the breezes of heaven.



THE UNION JACK IN USE SINCE 1801

CHAPTER XXII

THE WAR WITH NAPOLEON [1]

"We are left, or shall be left, alone,
The last that dare to struggle with the foe.
'Tis well! from this day forward we shall know
That in ourselves our safety must be sought,
That by our own right hands it must be wrought;
That we must stand unpropped, or be brought low."

WORDSWORTH.

1. THE Peace of Amiens was only a truce. As England refused to submit to his orders, Napoleon determined to make a tremendous effort to crush her independence and break up the Empire. As usual,

[1] See map on p. 20.

he began by stirring up trouble in India; but this was put down at the battle of Assaye, by Sir Arthur Wellesley, who afterwards became famous as the Duke of Wellington. When the Indian attempt had failed, Napoleon made up his mind that he could only prevent the British interfering with his designs by striking at the heart of his enemy. So in 1804, after he had made himself Emperor of the French, he

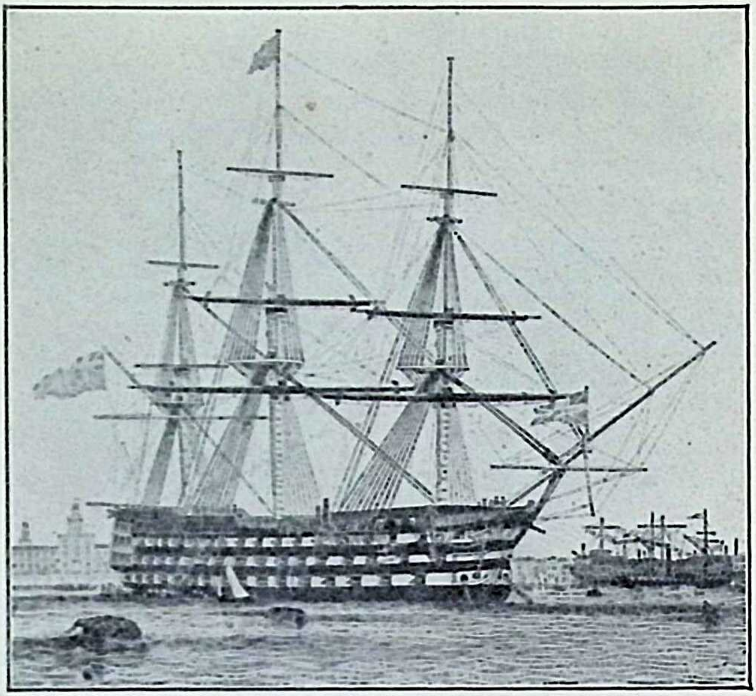


NAPOLEON'S MEDAL STRUCK TO COMMEMORATE THE INVASION OF ENGLAND WHICH NEVER TOOK PLACE

(From a cast in the British Museum)

encamped a huge army of 100,000 men on the coast of France ready to cross over into England. At the same time he collected a great fleet off the coast of Spain to convoy it across. "Let us be masters of the Channel for six hours," said Napoleon, "and we are masters of the World." And he was so sure of victory that he had a special medal cast in honour of his triumph. Anxiety grew in England. The coasts were guarded, and beacons were put up, ready to be lighted the moment the enemy came in sight. Day

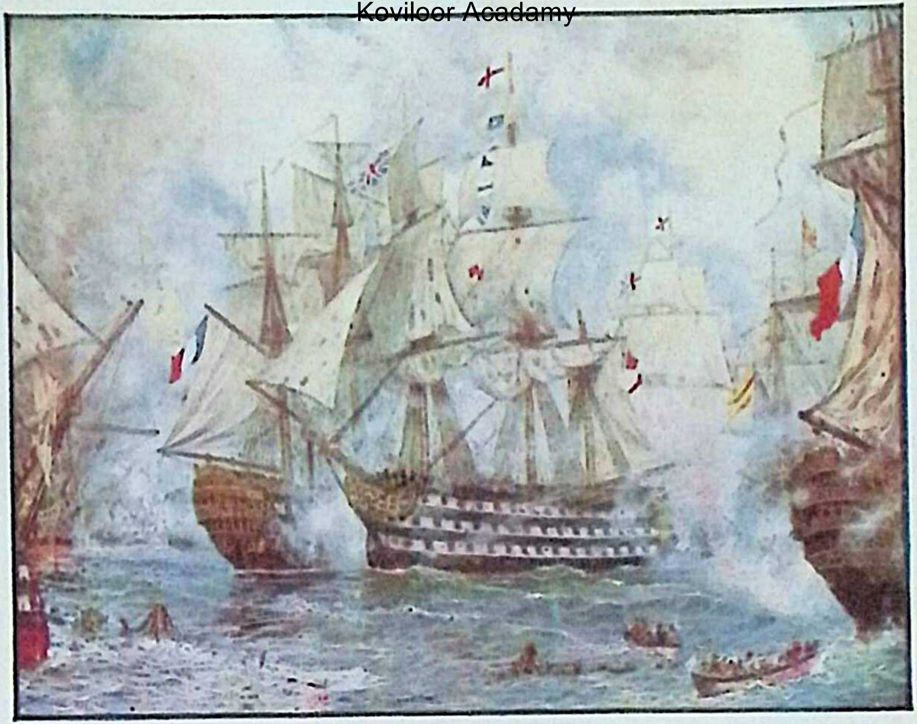
after day the people waited, but still Napoleon did not move. He was waiting for the fleet that was to guard this mighty army on its way across the Channel,



THE "VICTORY"

and that fleet never came. For the great Nelson, who had foiled his plans so often, defeated him once more.

2. Nelson fought battles all over the Atlantic to prevent Napoleon's fleet reaching the Channel. This campaign ended in the glorious victory of Trafalgar. Everybody knows the story of Trafalgar. Nelson knew that the fate of England hung upon the result



THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR

(Reduced from Longmans' Historical Wall Pictures by Henry J. Ford)

of the battle. So before the fight began he put up his famous signal for all his fleet to see: "England expects that every man will do his duty." How well that duty was done was shown at the end of the long fight, for at sunset twenty of the enemy's ships had fallen into British hands, and both the French and the Spanish admirals had been taken prisoners. England was saved, and all Napoleon's army could not touch her. Once again Nelson had crushed his hopes, but it was for the last time, for "the greatest sailor since the world began" had fallen during his greatest victory. When the news reached England, people did not know whether to be more glad because they were saved, or more sorry because their hero was killed. Unfortunately for England, she lost another of her great men shortly afterwards. For early in 1806 William Pitt, who had been Prime Minister during all the difficult years of the war, also died. Pitt's spirit is best shown by his own words. "England," said he, "has saved herself by her courage; she will save Europe by her example." It was Pitt who more than any one else gave England the courage to play the part she did.

3. From this time Napoleon had to change his plans. He could not reach England with his army, for the British had swept every other navy from off the seas, and would not allow his army to cross over. But still he was determined to destroy the last centre of resistance to his despotism in Europe, and he thought he would ruin her by destroying her trade. If she was mistress of the sea, he would make himself master of the land, and shut her commerce out of all

the ports of Europe. And so the rest of the war is the story of how he fought battle after battle, and conquered country after country, in order to make the whole of Europe into one great state and then use it to break the power of England. Each country that he conquered was forced to join his Continental System and shut its ports against British goods and British traders. England answered by refusing to allow the traders of the rest of the world to trade with France, or the States that obeyed Napoleon. So though England suffered from being shut out of Europe, Europe suffered still more; for it was cut off from the outside world and worn out with wars, until at last its peoples began to rise up against Napoleon.

4. The first people who rose against him were the Spanish and the Portuguese, who opened their ports to British ships, and asked for help from England. So, in 1808, Sir Arthur Wellesley (who afterwards became the great Duke of Wellington) was sent out to Portugal with an English army. Wellington's army was small, and very often it could get no food, but for five long years it fought on and on, while gradually the power of Napoleon was being broken. The French, who were also fighting in other parts of Europe, were driven back, first out of Portugal, and then out of Spain, and at last they were forced across the Pyrenees back into France. There were so many battles that you could not remember them all, so we will only give the names of a few of the most important. There was the battle of Talavera in 1809, which Wellington called "the hardest fought of modern times"; there was the battle of Busaco in

1810, where the fighting became so hot and close that the men had to use their fists because there was no room even for their bayonets. Then there was the famous siege of Ciudad Rodrigo, which Wellington took by such a sudden attack that it was said he "jumped on it with both his feet." In the same year the French army was destroyed at Salamanca. "I never saw an army receive such a beating," said Wellington after the battle. Besides these, a great many strong towns had to be taken and a great many other battles fought, before the long, final nine days' struggle in which the French were at last driven back across the rocks and passes of the Pyrenees into their own country.



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON

5. While this great war was going on in Spain, the rest of Europe had joined in the revolt against Napoleon, and finally defeated him in the mighty battle called the Battle of the Nations at Leipzig.

Then the allies followed Napoleon to Paris, and made him give up his crown, and sent him to the little island of Elba in the Mediterranean, which they gave him for his kingdom. A few months later Napoleon escaped, and landed again in France. He soon collected an army, and seized back his throne; but his new reign lasted a very short time, for all Europe rose against him. Within a hundred days Napoleon encountered Wellington, helped by the Prussians, at the famous battle of Waterloo, and was utterly defeated. After the battle Napoleon gave himself up to a British man-of-war, and was sent to spend the rest of his days in the island of St. Helena, far away in the South Atlantic Ocean.

6. The battle of Waterloo brought the long struggle between France and England to a close. The danger which had threatened to destroy the liberty of the Empire had finally disappeared. After the final defeat of Napoleon, France, England, and indeed all Europe, were so exhausted that they could think of nothing but how to repair the losses they had received. So a congress of all the Powers met in 1815 at Paris to settle the terms of peace. By the Peace of Paris, which this congress approved, England retained almost all the conquests she had made in the Napoleonic wars. In this way the Cape (the most important stopping-place on the road to India), Ceylon, British Guiana, Honduras, Tobago, Malta, and Mauritius all became part of the Empire.

CHAPTER XXIII

SUMMARY OF THE THIRD PERIOD

1. So the long struggle between France, the great autocratic land-power, and England, the free sea-power, which had begun in 1689, came to an end in 1815. It had taken 125 years and four terrific struggles for England finally to ward off the French danger, and so preserve her own freedom and that of the Commonwealth from destruction, and during those struggles England had helped to secure independence for the nations of Europe as well. Now let us turn back for a little, and see how England's Empire of 1689 had grown into the British Empire of 1815.

2. You will remember that at the beginning of the third period England had just won the command of the sea after her three wars with the Dutch. At that time her possessions were not very large, and were of two kinds. There were the real colonies along the east coast of North America, and there were the trading stations in the West Indies, Africa, and India. The colonies in North America were peopled by white men and women, but they were still small and weak, and were liable to be attacked by the French from Canada to the north, and the Spaniards from Florida to the south. The trading stations were mostly small islands and strips of land in Africa and India, where Englishmen lived to trade with the natives, but had nothing to do with the government. So that in 1689, though England had possessions in different parts of

the world, she had no really large pieces of land across the seas, and no big and important colonies.

3. Now look at the map for 1815 and you will see how the Empire has changed. First take the colonies. All the American settlements have disappeared. They broke away from their Mother-country during the long struggle with France, and have become the United States. But in their place new colonies in Canada, South Africa, and Australia have appeared. In 1815 these great countries were still almost empty, but they were good places for white men and women to settle and make their homes in; and the Union Jack flew over each of them to guard it from the attacks of enemies. We shall see later on how these new colonies, which were small and thinly inhabited in 1815, have since grown up free and strong under its protection.

4. Then there are the trading stations. These too have changed since 1700, for the English merchants and trading companies were unable to stay quietly in the stations they founded for purposes of trade. Largely because of the disorder created by repeated world wars they found themselves driven to establish law and order in the hinterland. In India, especially, the officials of the East India Company, once they had begun to extend their frontiers, had, by degrees, to take over the administration of the whole country. because in no other way could peace and security be maintained. So that by the end of the period the trading stations became great and valuable dependencies governed according to the principles of British law. The dependencies differ from the

colonies, because white people only go there temporarily, for trade or public service, and not to make their homes, as in Canada or Australia.

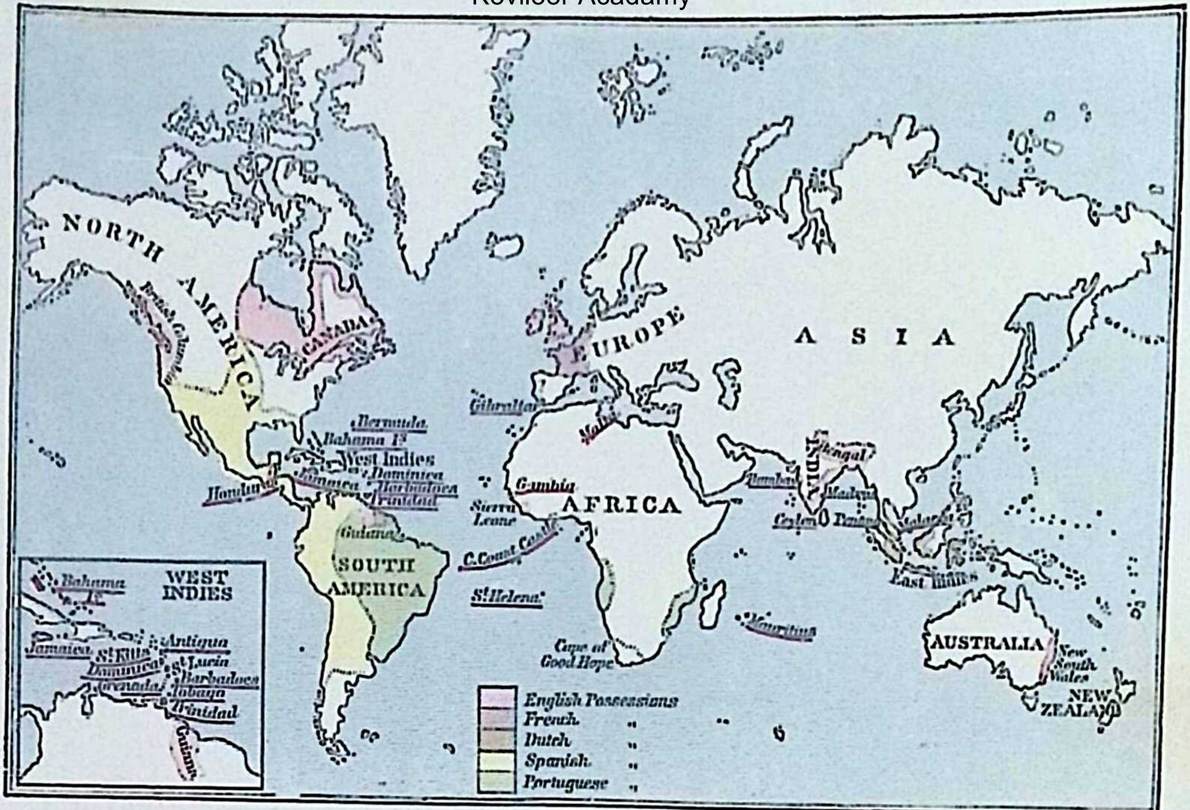
5. Then, lastly, in addition to the colonies and the dependencies there are marked on the map a great many little islands and ports in different parts of the world. These are chiefly useful not as places to settle in or trade with, but as stopping-places. There ships could put in for fresh food and water on their long voyages between the British Isles and the colonies and dependencies. The most important of these are the naval stations, like Gibraltar, and St. Helena, and Malta, which are like fortresses in the sea, and from which the British fleet can sail about all over the world.

6. But there is one thing to do with the Commonwealth which we cannot find on the map, and which is yet essential to its unity and strength—sea-power. It is the same in 1815 as it was in 1700. The British navy is still the mistress of the sea. In 1689 England was first upon the sea, because she had been victorious in the three wars with Holland and because her other rival France, busy in building up a great military European ascendancy, had scarcely realised soon enough that naval supremacy is dependent upon the development of overseas trade and commerce. In 1815 she was still first upon the sea, because she had defeated France in each of the four desperate struggles between them.

7. So that this third period was a very important one. It was a long period of strife, but it led to many good results. It led to the development of a strong

yet free system of parliamentary government at home; for only a strong government could meet the danger. It led to the union of England, Scotland, and Ireland; because the statesmen believed that this unity would give them the strength to resist their enemies. And, finally, the triumph of the English navy made it possible for the peoples across the seas to develop in peace and quiet, as we shall see during the century that followed.

THE WORLD IN 1815



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PART IV

PERIOD OF INTERNAL DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER XXIV

BRITAIN IN THE NINETEENTH AND TWENTIETH CENTURIES

This royal throne of kings, this sceptred isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This other Eden, demi-paradise;
This fortress, built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war;
This happy breed of men, this little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands;
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England,
This land of such dear souls, this dear, dear land,
England bound in by the triumphant sea,
Whose rocky shore beats back the envious siege
Of watery Neptune."

SHAKESPEARE, *Richard II.*

1. Now we come to the fourth period in the history of the British Commonwealth, which lasts almost to the present day. .You remember that during nearly the whole of the eighteenth century Great Britain was fighting a desperate struggle with France to preserve her liberty and her empire. You remember, too, that her sea-power gained her the victory, even against Napoleon, and made her the first colonising power in the world. Fortunately for England, Europe was

worn out by these fearful wars, and a long period of peace set in. This peace brought two good results. The people in the British Isles were able to turn their minds to internal reconstruction and to improving their system of government, so that England rapidly recovered from the long strain of the war, and became vigorous and prosperous once more. And in the colonies it allowed the settlers thoroughly to explore their new homes, and to build themselves up into the strong nations that they are to-day. So the nineteenth century is called the period of internal development of the Commonwealth.

2. In the beginning of the century there took place in England what was known as the Industrial Revolution. Up to this time most of the people in the British Isles had made their living by farming. The manufactures were small, and were generally done by men and women in their own homes. But now a great change took place. The power of steam was discovered, the first steam-engines were made, and machinery was invented to do a great part of the work which before people had done with their own hands. Factories were built where the machinery was put up, and the people came to live in towns to be near the factories, instead of living and working in their country cottages as before. Then great mining and industrial towns sprang up wherever iron ore and coal were found, and still better machinery was made. And all the time railways, canals, and steamers were being built to carry people and manufactures quickly and cheaply from place to place both by land and sea.

3. The effect of all these discoveries and inventions

was that British trade grew tremendously all over the world. For on the one hand, when England's own needs were supplied, manufacturers had to find fresh people in other countries to buy their goods; and on the other, the British Isles were no longer able to grow enough food for the millions in the new towns, and food and raw materials had to be brought in from across the sea. So merchants began to travel all over the world, selling the goods that were made in England, and buying in return food for the British workmen to eat, and raw materials, like wool and cotton, for them to use in their manufactures. In this way the British became the greatest manufacturing people in the world. Their merchants and ships were in every port, and their engineers and business men were working and trading in half the countries of the globe. As we shall see in the next chapters, it was because of this great world-wide trade that the Dominions grew so rapidly, and that places valuable for trade, like Burma, the Straits Settlements, Hong-Kong, and parts of Central Africa, came to be added to the British Empire.

4. After the Industrial Revolution another movement began. More and more people began to discover that the colonies were very pleasant places to live in, and that it was easier to make a living there than in the older countries of Europe. And bigger and faster steamships and better railways were built to carry them across the seas and from place to place in the new countries. In consequence a great tide of emigration set in during the second half of the nineteenth century, and numbers of men and women left the

British Isles, and also Europe, to settle in America and the British colonies. It was in this way that the Dominions gained most of their population.

5. But the British Government had also to face the question of how to govern this great Empire which was developing so fast. We have already learnt that the countries of the Commonwealth fell into two groups—the Dominions in the temperate zones, where white people live, and the Dependencies in the tropics, where the non-white peoples lived. These two groups could not be governed in the same way.

6. In the Dominions was gradually set up the same kind of government that existed in the British Isles. Before 1832 only the richer landowning class in England had taken part in politics, but in that year a Reform Bill was passed to give the right of voting for members of Parliament to the middle class. The latter now included many thriving merchants whose fortunes were being made by the development of trade and commerce due to the Industrial Revolution. Later Reform Bills extended the franchise to the great mass of the community. When once the British people had begun to share in the government of their country, the idea soon gained ground that the white people in the colonies should be allowed to manage their own affairs too. So in 1840 what is known as responsible government was started in Canada. Partly due to the influence of Lord Durham, who had been Colonial Secretary in the Government that had passed the Great Reform Bill, the Canadians were given the right to manage all the affairs of their own country, although everything that had to do with the

rest of the Empire, or with foreign lands, was still left in the hands of Great Britain. This experiment was such a success that responsible government was afterwards given to all the other parts of the Commonwealth that were chiefly inhabited by white men.

7. This settled the question of how the Dominions were to be governed; but it did not help in the problem of the Dependencies, for the black and brown peoples had not yet learnt how to govern themselves by democratic means. To maintain order and justice and civil administration according to modern standards, the British had for a time to keep the government of these countries in their own hands. And we shall see later how everywhere they put an end to slavery, and civil war, and torture, and how the progress of the Dependencies, and the education of their peoples and the progress they have made towards self-government, have been largely due to the protecting and guiding hand of Britain.

8. There was still another question: How was the unity of this great association of peoples all rapidly developing to be preserved? For a time most people believed that, as in the case of America, the self-governing Dominions would gradually grow into independent nations and end by separating themselves from the Motherland. This was known as the ripe-fruit theory, because those that believed in it expected the colonies to drop off like ripe fruit from the parent tree. But towards the end of the century the feeling grew rapidly that Great Britain could not police the seas and defend the liberty of all the new lands against aggression from Europe and Asia by herself,

and that the co-operation of the peoples who made up the British Commonwealth was essential to the preservation of their own freedom, peace and order. Though it was not found possible to set up any council for the conduct of common imperial affairs, the manner in which the peoples of all parts of the Commonwealth rallied to its defence in the Great War showed both how strong the sentiment of unity had become and how vigorous had been the growth of the new nations and younger peoples of the Commonwealth during the century of peace and development they had enjoyed behind the shield of the British navy since the Battle of Waterloo.

CHAPTER XXV

THE EXPANSION OF CANADA

1. You know how Canada became part of the British Empire in 1763, after Wolfe had defeated Montcalm at Quebec. Before that it had been a French colony, and so, naturally, even after it came under the British flag, nearly every one who lived in it was French. But you remember how, a few years later, when the English colonies in America rebelled, a great many of the colonists in New England would not join in fighting their Mother-country, but left their homes and went and settled in Canada. We saw that these people were called United Empire Loyalists, and that they settled in two parties, one near the mouth of the St. Lawrence River, in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and the other higher up the river in

Ontario, near the Great Lakes. Unfortunately, it was not long before the British colonists and the old French settlers began to quarrel with one another. The British wanted to manage their own affairs in their own way, and did not like the French laws or the French language; and the French wanted things to go on just as they were, and objected to the changes proposed by the newcomers. The dispute was settled for a time by dividing Canada into two parts, Upper and Lower Canada. Upper Canada, which is now called Ontario, was to be the home of the British people and to be governed by British laws; and Lower Canada, the country round Quebec, was to be left to the French with their own laws and their own language. Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were to be two separate colonies, and except for Newfoundland and a tiny settlement in British Columbia, far away on the Pacific Ocean, the rest of Canada was still almost unexplored.

2. In 1812, war broke out between England and America, because, as you will remember, Napoleon tried to conquer England by ruining her trade, and England answered by refusing to allow any outside country to trade with Europe. This affected the United States, and so they went to war with England. At first the American ships won some success, but, after a time, the stronger British navy swept them off the seas. Then the Americans did their best to conquer Canada by land, so as to force it to join the United States, and for two years the war raged backwards and forwards along the frontier. First one side and then the other invaded the enemy's country;

and sometimes one side, and sometimes the other, gained the victory. The best general on the British side was General Brock, who once took prisoner an American army twice as big as his own. In the end he was killed in a battle near the Niagara Falls, bravely saving his country from attack. At last, in 1814, when Napoleon had been driven from his throne and the Treaty of Paris was being arranged, peace was made in America too. Each side saw that it could not conquer the other, so they agreed to stop fighting and to leave matters as they were before the war. Since then, the United States and the Commonwealth have been at peace.

3. After 1814 the history of Canada falls into three parts. The first part lasted from 1814 to 1840, when responsible government was introduced and the Canadians began to manage their own domestic affairs. The second lasted from 1840 to 1872, when all the separate colonies in Canada were joined together into one great dominion. And the third is the period in which Canada has been increasing her population, and has grown year by year a richer and more important nation within the Commonwealth. Now let us see what happened in the first period.

4. By 1814 there was a large English, as well as a large French, population in Canada. For a time their old quarrels were forgotten, for both of them had united in fighting bravely for their country against the Americans. But soon new troubles arose. There were many difficulties about the government of the colonies in those days, for London and Canada were very far apart, and as there were no telegraphs or

steamships, news travelled very slowly. The English ministers could know little about the affairs of Canada, and they used to interfere in a way that made the people angry. The Governors who were sent out from England often knew very little either, and then they fell under the influence of a few powerful families who gave them bad advice. So the people were not satisfied, and complained more and more that they were badly governed. Then to add to the troubles, the old quarrels between the French and English colonists broke out once more.

5. At last the confusion grew so bad that the British Government sent Lord Durham to find out what was really the matter, and to tell them what should be done to set things right. Lord Durham was keenly interested in colonial government, and he saw that there was only one way out of the difficulty. The Canadians must be allowed to manage the internal affairs of their own country in their own way. He also proposed that the French and English colonists, instead of being kept apart as they had been before, must be brought face to face in one Parliament, so as to learn to know and respect each other, and to work together for the good of their common country. In 1839 the Durham Report was published which was to change the whole state of Canada. In it Lord Durham advised that Canada should be given responsible government, and that Upper Canada where the British lived, and Lower Canada where the French lived, should be joined together under one Parliament. The British Government took Lord Durham's advice, and in 1840 the first of the daughter-parliaments of

the Commonwealth was brought into being. Soon afterwards responsible government was given to the other British colonies in North America as well. The first step had been taken towards making all Canada a nation.

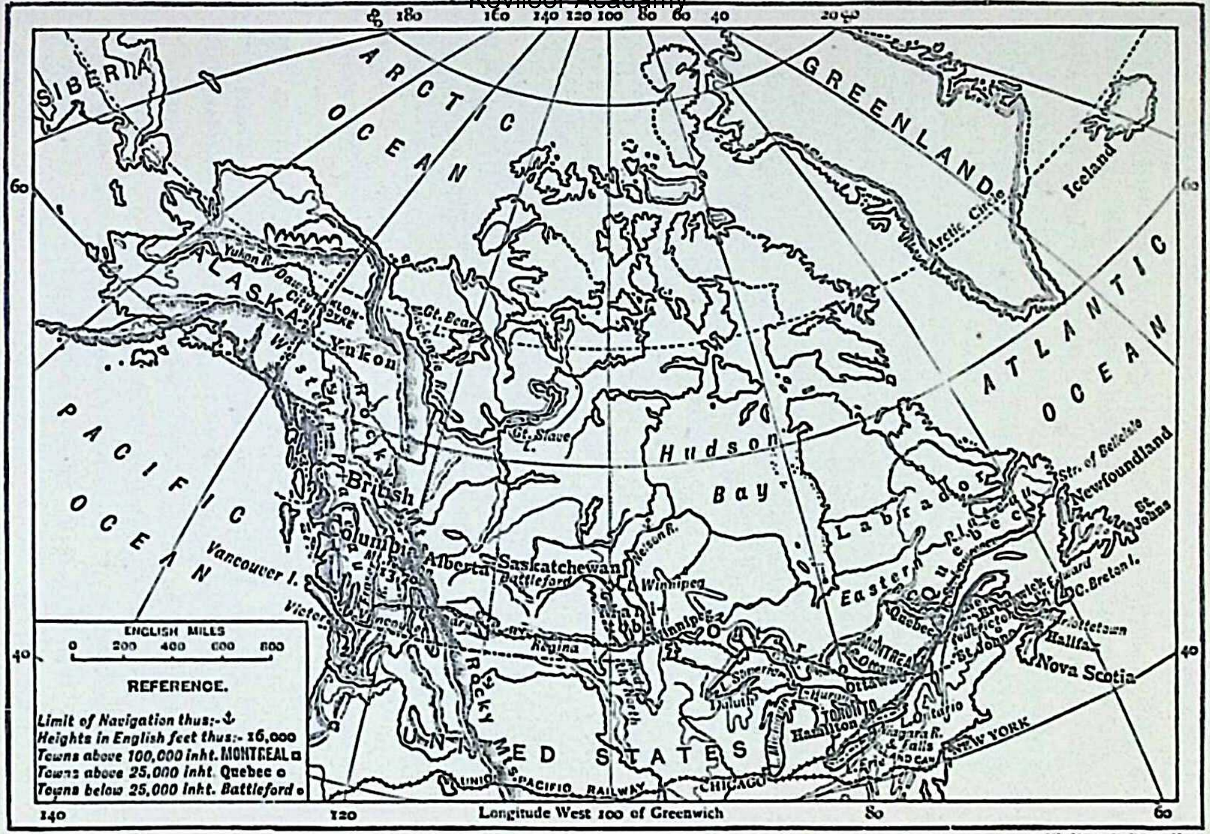
CHAPTER XXVI

THE FEDERATION OF CANADA

1. The second part of the history of modern Canada lasted thirty-two years, from 1840 to 1872. As soon as the Canadians really had to manage their own affairs, they found that they were very weak and powerless, for they were made up of a few little colonies dotted along the frontier of the huge United States. So they began to see that they ought to join together, and make one big State that would be able to stand by itself, and to manage all affairs which were common to the whole country.

2. There were three chief reasons for this. First of all, the French and English had not got on very well together. The disputes between them in the Parliament of Canada were so endless that neither side could do anything, and the government of the country had almost come to a standstill. It was quite clear that some big change ought to be made to put matters straight. Secondly, civil war had broken out in America in 1861, and the Canadians were afraid that, when it was over, the Americans might send some of their armies to conquer Canada. One band of American adventurers did actually cross the

The Dominion of Canada and Newfoundland



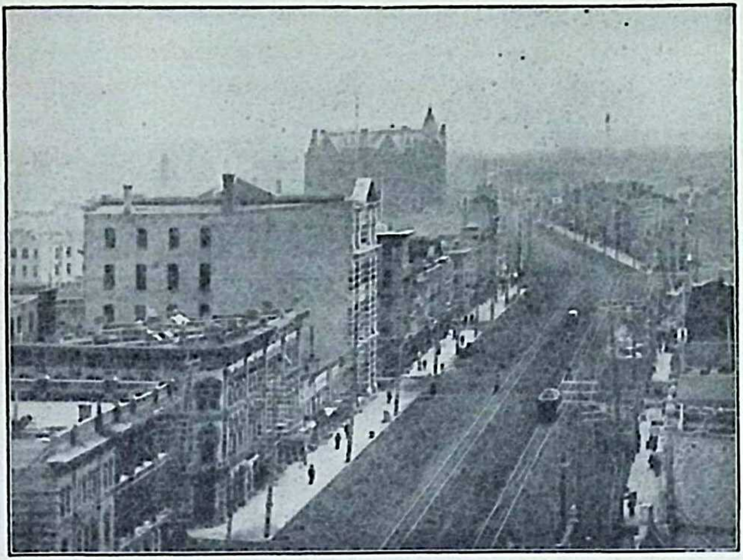
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frontier, and the Canadians felt that, unless they joined together, they would never be able to defend themselves against a real invasion. Lastly, the Canadians were just beginning to understand how valuable the wide land that stretched from the Great Lakes to the far-off Rocky Mountains might be. At this time a great part of it belonged to the Hudson Bay Company. Countless herds of buffalo wandered over the prairies, and the forests and mountains in the north and the west were full of animals covered with valuable furs. For years it had been left in the hands of Indians and a few traders. But lately daring men had begun to explore this unknown country. Some pushed far to the frozen north, and others tried to find a way over the wild Rocky Mountains to the sea; and so gradually all the Great West was discovered. But there was no proper government over it, and people became afraid that if it was not properly colonised and governed it would be seized by somebody else, and so lost to Canada.

3. So there were many reasons to show that the separate colonies ought to be joined together to make one strong State. The idea of federation, as it was called, was eagerly taken up, especially by Sir John Macdonald, the Prime Minister of Upper and Lower Canada. At last, after a great many difficulties, all the leading Canadians agreed to certain common principles, and an Act was passed through the British Parliament in 1867, called the British North America Act, by which the old colony of Canada was again divided into the provinces of Ontario and Quebec, and these together with Nova Scotia and New Brunswick

were federated into the Dominion of Canada. Three years later all the lands of the Hudson Bay Company in the Great West were bought by the new Government. These were later divided into the three provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta.



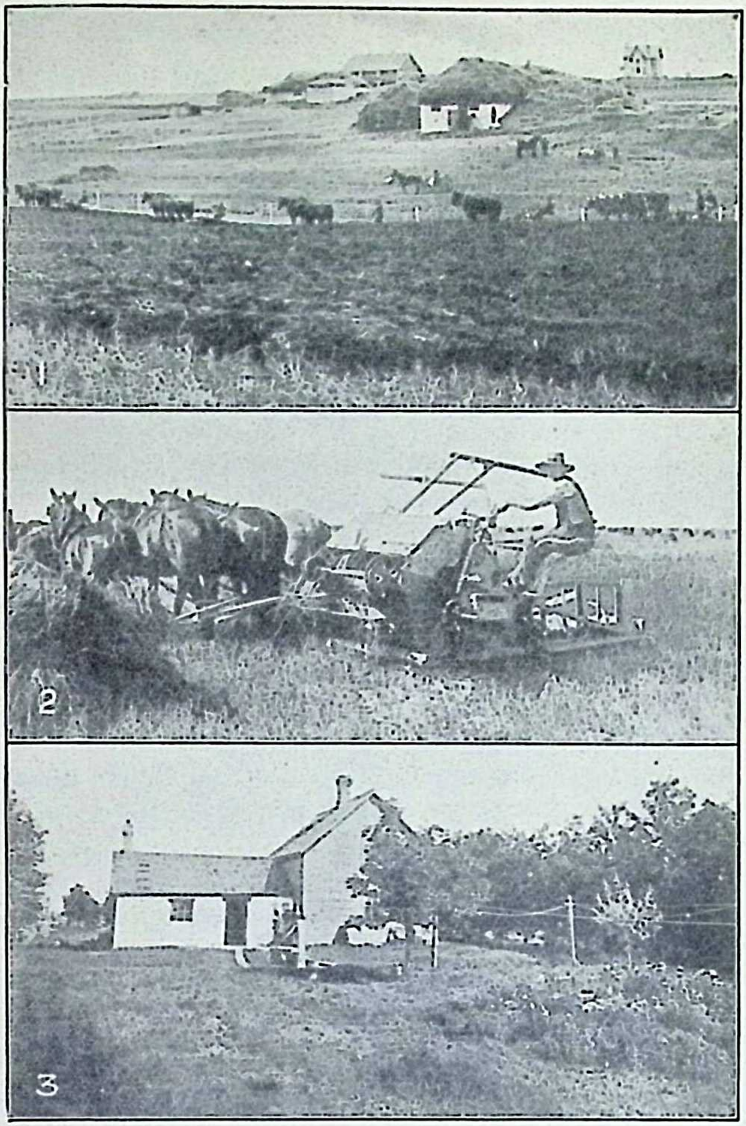
WINNIPEG, THE CAPITAL OF MANITOBA

(By kind permission of the Canadian Pacific Railway)

In 1871 the colony of British Columbia, which lies on the other side of the Rocky Mountains, facing the Pacific Ocean, joined the Federation, and so by 1872 the great Dominion was complete. A central government was set up over the whole vast country, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, and from the Great Lakes to the North Pole, and Canada became the

first and the most important of the self-governing Dominions of the British Commonwealth. Of all the North American colonies only Newfoundland still remains an independent colony.

4. The last period in the history of modern Canada has been the period of national development. No sooner was the Federal Government in power than it encouraged the building of a railway right across the continent, from ocean to ocean, to bind the whole land together with a band of steel. It was a mighty enterprise to lay a railway over such thousands of miles of empty country, and across ranges of wild unexplored mountains. But the builders set to work, and although, when they had got half-way across the continent, no pass had yet been found through the mountains, they persevered, and at last, by the end of 1885, the railway was finished. It was not long before the good results showed, for the railway opened up the whole country, and people began to pour in to grow crops and raise cattle on the great plains in the middle of Canada. They found that for hundreds and hundreds of miles the prairie was the best country in the world for growing wheat. As this news spread, people flocked in from the British Isles, and from America and Europe, and very soon there were hundreds of thousands of farmers in the Canadian West. After the settlers came others—traders, doctors, lawyers, and men with money to dig coal-mines and start other industries. So the rush of immigrants set in, for the resources of Canada seem endless. Some of the newcomers stayed in the east of Canada to grow fruit and corn, and to raise cattle



1. PLOUGHING, HANNA'S FARM. 2. HARVESTING
3. FARM IN THE FAR WEST

(By kind permission of the Canadian Pacific Railway)

and hogs; some went right across to British Columbia to farm and grow fruit in the rich valleys in the hills, to mine or cut lumber in the forests of the Rocky Mountains, or to fish or trade on the Pacific Ocean; but most of them stopped on the prairies of the centre, growing wheat, and helping to push ever farther and farther to the great unknown North. Thus, if the railway system strengthened the Federation by enabling Canadians to live together more closely, it also made practical other links with the Mother-country. Soon industrial populations at home were being fed on the wheat and fruit which railway and oceanic transport now brought so much more quickly to their doors.

5. This rapid growth in her population and prosperity naturally made Canada think of her position in the world. She was no longer a weak country altogether depending on the Mother-country, but a rich State, able to defend herself and to take her share in the responsibilities of the Empire. So England's eldest daughter began to come forward to aid her to bear the burden. In 1897 she helped on the trade of Great Britain by giving goods produced within the Empire what is called a preference over the goods of foreign countries. That is to say, British goods were allowed into Canada on payment of a lower rate of duty than foreign goods. Three years later the South African War broke out, and hundreds of Canadians went to fight side by side with the British troops for the honour and safety of the Empire. And in 1914, when the Great War broke out, Canada threw herself into the struggle against autocracy with her whole

strength, and, as we shall see, took a glorious part in helping to win the victory.

CHAPTER XXVII

THE COLONISATION OF AUSTRALIA

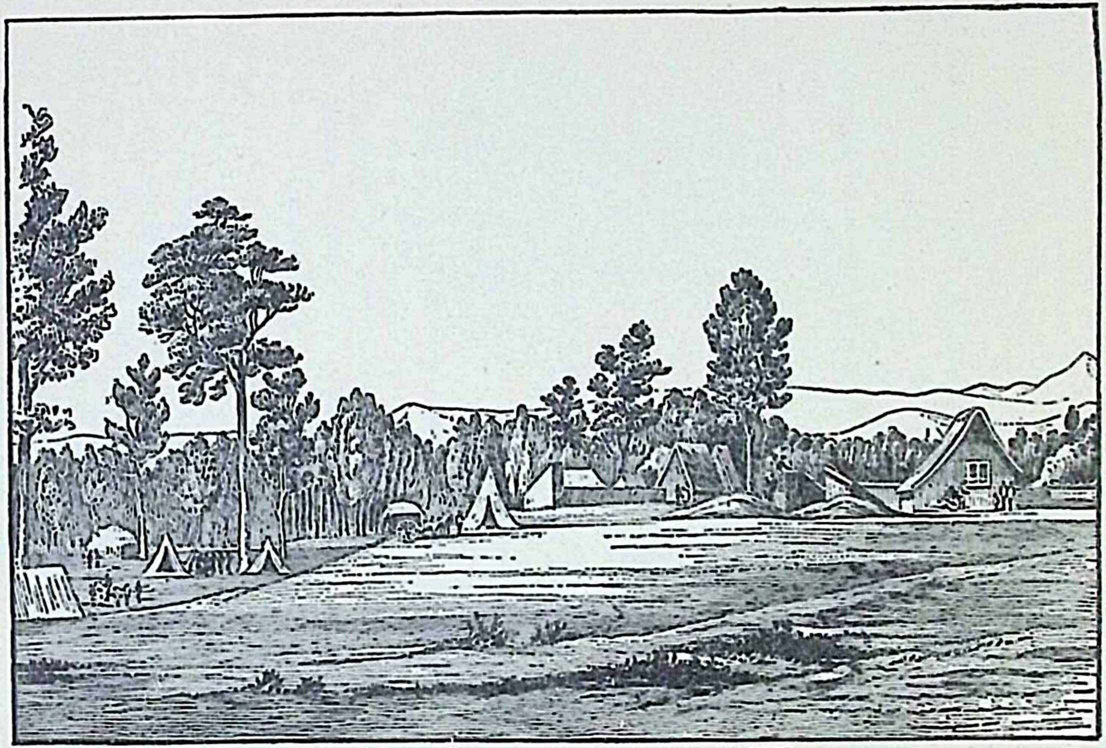
1. In an earlier chapter we learnt how Australia came to be discovered, and how it was colonised. To begin with, the new settlement did not grow very fast. The first settlements were made on the south-eastern coast—the portion farthest from England—and in Tasmania, still farther away. There was, therefore, little trade between England and Australia in the early days, and the population of the country grew very slowly. Even as late as 1820 the settlements on the mainland of the continent covered little more than the town of Sydney and the country round about it.

2. But about 1823 the area of colonisation began to increase rapidly. In the first place, in that year some people thought that, instead of sailing all round Australia to Sydney, they would explore the south-western corner and see if there was not rich land to be found there. So there they landed and founded the town of Fremantle, and later on the settlement grew into the great state of Western Australia, which now covers one-third of the whole continent.

3. In the second place, immigration of settlers was brought about through the agitation against the transportation of convicts to Australia. You will remember how the British Government used to send their convicts to America, and how, after the New

England colonies had broken away, they began to send them to Australia instead. As we have already learnt, many of these convicts were not what we now mean by convicts at all. They were poachers and unruly soldiers who had nothing to do when peace was declared, and troublesome and rebellious politicians whom the Government were anxious to get rid of. Some of these people became afterwards leading men in Australia. But among them were a number of evil-doers, and as the Australian settlers wanted to build up a strong, well-governed state, they naturally objected to such people being sent out to live in their country. At the head of the movement was a man called Wentworth. For some time he worked in vain; but at last he was successful, and, after 1840, the British Government agreed to send no more convicts to Australia.

4. But Wentworth was not the only person interested in immigration. There was another man, called Wakefield, who saw that, if the convicts were to be kept away, the country would come to a standstill for want of people to do the work. So he started the idea of encouraging labourers and other men who found it difficult to make a living in England to go and settle in Australia. Fortunately his plan succeeded, and a stream of emigration set in, or the country would never have grown as it has. The first of Wakefield's settlers founded the city of Adelaide in 1834, which afterwards became the capital of a new colony called South Australia. Two years later some people from New South Wales and Tasmania founded the town of Melbourne, on almost the most southerly



THE FIRST SETTLEMENT AT ADELAIDE, 1836

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point of Australia. This settlement at first formed part of New South Wales, but in 1851 it was made into a separate colony and called Victoria.

5. In this way colonies were founded all along the south and east coasts of Australia. But the northern shores and the interior of the continent were still unoccupied. This was because all the north of Australia is in the tropics, and much less healthy and pleasant to live in than the south; and because in the middle of the country there is a great desert with no rivers or springs. So naturally the first emigrants settled along the southern and south-eastern coasts, where it was cool and where there was plenty of water and rich pasture-land. But later on, as these southern coast-lands were taken up, the newcomers pushed farther afield, and they soon found that most of the country along the north-eastern shores was very rich, and that people could quite well live and work there if they built suitable houses and took proper care of their health. They then began to press inland, and before very long enough people had settled in these parts to form a new colony, which in 1859 was recognised as one of the five great colonies of Australia, and was called Queensland.

6. Meanwhile adventurous men, not content with settling along the coast, had been exploring the centre of Australia as well. Expedition after expedition set out to discover what it was like. But they all came back exhausted by hunger and thirst, saying that they had found nothing but miles and miles of desert. There were many sad stories of failure, and many were the brave explorers who lost their lives in these hot,

sandy deserts before the map of Australia could be properly drawn. One of the saddest stories is told of a party which set out to cross the whole land from south to north. This expedition was badly led, and wandered on and on until at last its members separated. Four of them made a wild dash for the north and nearly reached the sea; but it was a



ROBERT O'HARA BURKE AND WILLIAM JOHN WILLS

Two of the Leaders of the First Expedition that attempted to cross Australia from South to North

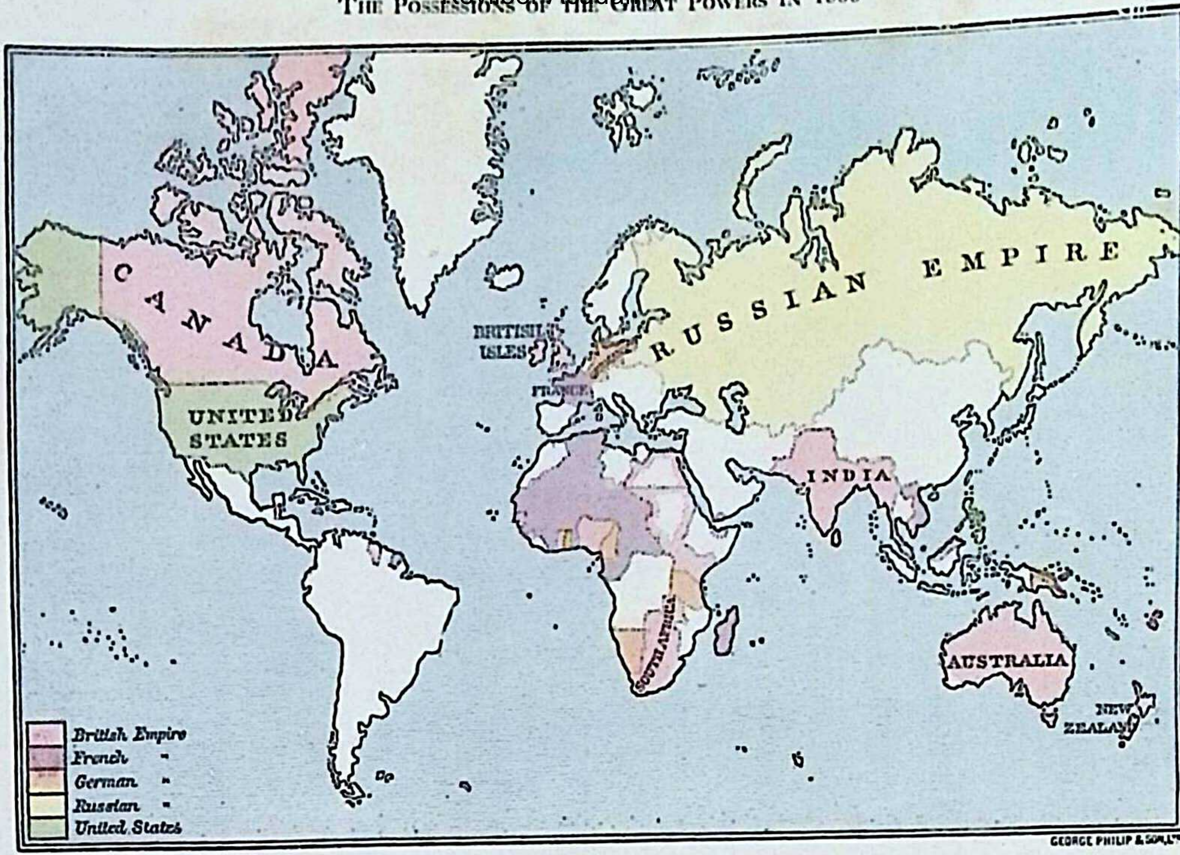
deserted shore, and their stores were almost used up, so they had to turn back. Then they lost their way and wandered about the middle of Australia. After a time, as none of them came home, search-parties were sent out. For a long time the rescuers could find no signs of them, but one day they came upon a white man with a party of natives. They asked him who he was. "I am King," he said, "the last of the explorers."

7. When at last all this country was opened up, part of it was joined to Queensland, and part of it was handed over to South Australia. Since then people have found that in much of the Central Australian desert there is water a little way below the surface, which can be reached if wells are sunk far enough into the ground. So a part of the interior, which was thought to be a useless desert, has become a thriving country and supports large flocks of sheep. It is possible that, before very long, much of the old desert of Australia will be one of the stock-raising countries of the Commonwealth.

8. So we see that by 1860 almost the whole of the vast continent had been explored, and though only thickly populated along the southern and eastern coast-line, had been divided up into five great States. These were New South Wales, the original colony; Victoria, the southernmost State; South Australia, which ran right across the continent from north to south; Western Australia, the largest State; and Queensland, the most northerly of them all.

9. It was not very long before the news of the success of responsible government in Canada began to reach the ears of the Australians. In Australia, as well as in Canada, there had been frequent disputes between the British Government and the local population about the proper way of governing the country, for Australia was so far from England that in those days, when letters, messages, and news had to travel by slow sailing ships, the people of one country knew very little about the people of the other. So a demand soon grew up that the system which had

THE POSSESSIONS OF THE GREAT POWERS IN 1900



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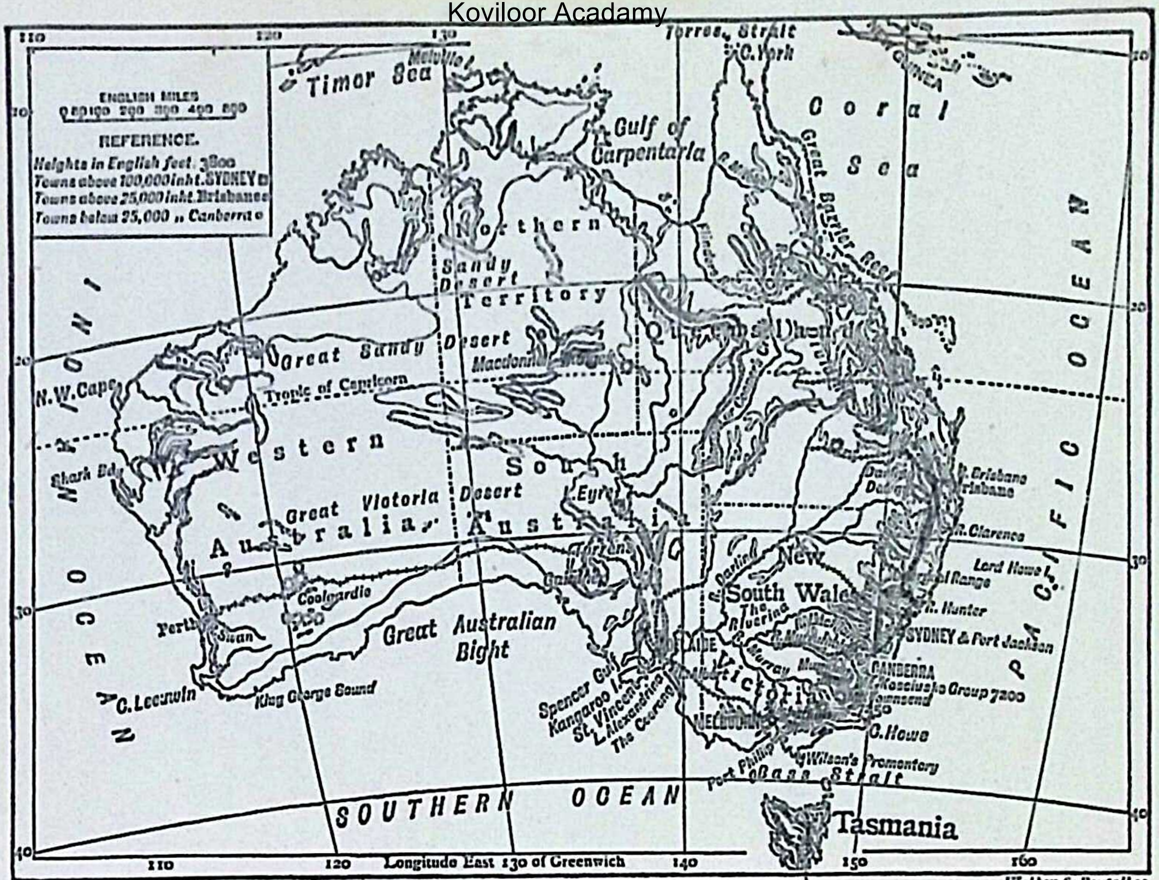
worked so well in Canada should be given a trial in Australia also. The British Government agreed, and in 1851 the four colonies which were properly colonised at that time—New South Wales (which then included Queensland), Victoria, South Australia and Tasmania—set to work to draw up constitutions for themselves. These constitutions were shortly afterwards accepted and passed into law by the Imperial Parliament. In 1859 Queensland was recognised as a separate colony and received its own constitution, and Western Australia, which grew much more slowly, followed suit in 1890.

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE FEDERATION OF AUSTRALIA

1. For some time after they were given responsible government, the Australian States were kept busy arranging their own affairs. Their great trouble was to find settlers to fill up the country, for now they found just the same difficulty that England had met with in old days, when she tried to plant her first colonies in America: they could not persuade people to travel thousands of miles, to set up their homes in a strange land where it was sometimes hard to make a living, unless there were very good reasons to induce them to go. This want of immigrants was all the more serious, because the Australians knew that if they did not people the country properly, sooner or later some foreign people would come and occupy part of it.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

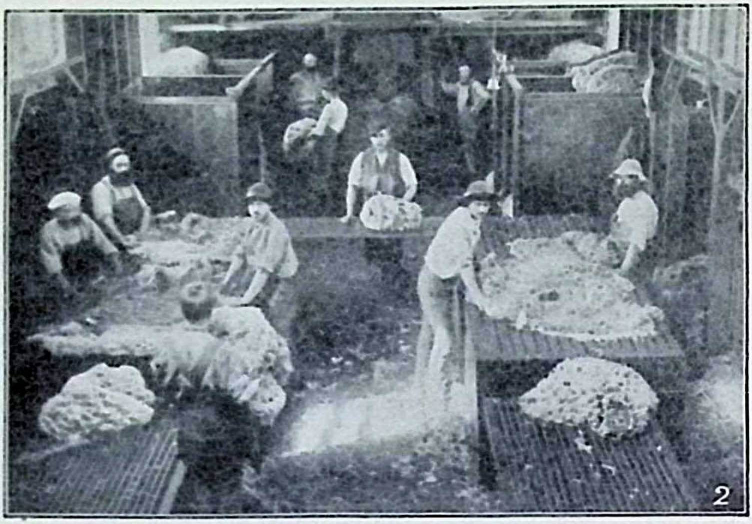


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2. Fortunately, about the middle of the century a discovery was made that changed the whole life of Australia. An Australian who was working in the gold-fields of America noticed that the land was very like some parts of his own native country. This made him wonder if there was not gold in Australia also. So he journeyed back to New South Wales to find out, and, after some explorations, found that the valleys in the mountains were rich in gold. No sooner did this news spread than men poured in from all sides. Up to this time the chief industry of the country had been sheep-rearing, and most of the people had been scattered about on farms, or gathered in a few towns on the coast. But now the farmers left their sheep, the shopkeepers left their stores, the sailors even left their ships in the ports, and joined in the rush for gold. Soon afterwards gold was found in other parts of Australia as well, in Victoria and Queensland, and later still in Western Australia, and when the news reached England, thousands of men packed up their goods and sailed off in the hopes of making a fortune.

3. At first this wild rush of people made great confusion in the quiet land of Australia, but by degrees the miners settled down, and gold-mining grew into a steady industry which supported large numbers of people. But naturally this big new population brought about a change in the life of the country. The newcomers wanted food, and clothes, and goods of all kinds. The consequence was that the farmers found that they had a far bigger market for their goods than ever before, and the shipping companies had to send more ships to Australia to carry all the stores ordered

by traders for the new towns and mining camps. In this way the country was opened out, and railways and telegraphs were built all over the land. Then enterprising men began to send Australian goods back in the ships that had brought the stores from England. At first only wool was sent in addition to



WOOL-SORTING

the minerals, because the long hot voyage made the carriage of other farm produce very difficult. But after a time a way was found of preserving meat, butter, and other foods, by packing them in iced chambers. This discovery was a tremendous help to the development of the country, and the farming industry grew by leaps and bounds, so that now there are over 6,000,000 people in Australia, and they

export great quantities of wool, mutton, grain, and dairy produce every year, as well as gold and other minerals.

4. Before very long the Australian States found that responsible government had not settled all their troubles. Even the discovery of gold, which had been such a great help to their country in many ways, brought new difficulties. It attracted the Chinese and other peoples of Asia, who began to think of leaving their own crowded lands and settling in Australia. But the Australians did not want them. They felt that if they let the peoples of Asia come and settle in Australia it would lead to endless quarrels between the different races and to all kinds of trouble, so they decided that only Europeans should be allowed to settle among them. Another of the difficulties was that the colonies were always disputing amongst themselves. Then, too, there were a great many duties, like the defence of their coasts, which were being left undone because there was no one government which could speak for the whole country. So people began to look at the example of Canada, and to talk of the need of federation. They knew that up to this time they had been safe from foreign enemies, and had been able to keep out the Asiatics, because the British navy had protected them; but they saw that some day the British navy might be wanted in some other part of the world, and then they would have to trust to themselves alone.

5. Just about this time France and Germany took some of the islands to the north and east of Australia. This made the Australians want to prepare to defend

their shores, for they were afraid they might be attacked from these islands. But when they tried to take the first steps, they found that, so long as they were divided into five separate States, they could not agree upon what ought to be done. So a meeting was held of members from all the States, and after a great many difficulties and delays a federal constitution was drawn up which was agreed to by them all, and passed by the British Parliament in 1900. This constitution created one Australian Parliament to manage everything that had to do with the outside world, like defence, and customs duties, and immigration, while it left the various States to look after their own local affairs. In this way the dangers of disunion were brought to an end, and the Australians became one people, and the colony of Australia became one of the great self-governing Dominions of the Empire.

6. Once the federation of the different States had been completed, the Australians began to take a great interest in the question of the defence of the Empire. Even while the Act of Federation was being passed, they sent large bodies of troops to help the British army in the war in South Africa. Then they followed the example of Canada and tried to help on British trade by reducing the customs duties on goods produced within the Empire. They also obtained a few men-of war to guard their own shores. In 1909 they went still farther and ordered that all their young men were to go through a certain amount of military training, so as to be able to defend their country if danger should arise. In the same year,

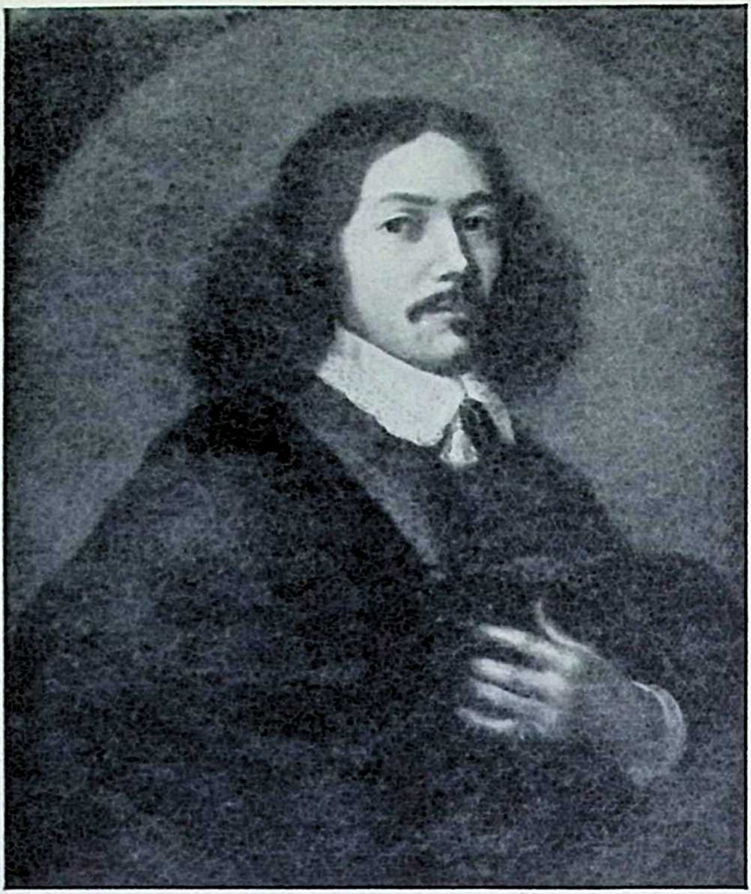
Australia took the lead by being the first of the Dominions to create a naval squadron of her own, to help the Royal Navy in its heavy task of protecting the possessions of the Empire in the Southern seas. Finally, on the outbreak of the German war, Australia rallied to the Empire immediately, and raised a national army which gained the reputation of being one of the best forces on the side of the Allies.

7. So the story of Australia in the nineteenth century is a story of wonderful progress. At the beginning of the century she was a tiny, helpless colony; to-day her people have become a great modern State, owning the whole of one of the six continents of the world, and playing an important rôle in the affairs of the Commonwealth and of the world.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE GROWTH OF SOUTH AFRICA

1. You will remember that the Cape of Good Hope was almost the first discovery made by the early explorers. It was reached for the first time in 1486 by Bartholomew Diaz. Drake sailed past it on his famous voyage round the world, and said that it was "the fairest cape in the whole circumference of the earth." But for a long time after that nobody stopped there. In 1620, however, two British sea captains landed at Table Bay, and took it in the name of King James I., but the English Government at that time did not want new possessions across the sea, and the



JOHAN VAN RIEBEEK

The Founder of the Dutch Settlement at the Cape, and First Dutch Governor, 1652–1662

claim was given up. About thirty years later, the Dutch East India Company decided to plant a station on the south-eastern coast of Africa, as a stopping-place on the way to the East, and they found Table Bay unoccupied. Their sailors used to get ill on their long journeys for want of vegetables and fresh meat, so the company sent out some families and settled them below Table Mountain to grow vegetables and buy cattle from the Hottentots for the sailors who touched at the port.

2. For some time the Dutch kept to the lands lying round the great rock of Table Mountain and the narrow neck which joins it to the mainland. But as their numbers grew they began to want more land, and about 1680, after the Hottentots had been defeated, Simon van der Stel, the first governor, colonised the rich valleys that nestle at the foot of the mountains round the great table-land of South Africa. So the colony of Cape Town began to grow from the very beginning, and, as we shall see later on, the whole history of South Africa right up to the present day turns upon this gradual growth.

3. As the white people pushed forward in this way, the Hottentots and bushmen who lived in the country near Table Mountain either gave in to them or drew back to the high table-land which forms all the centre of South Africa. The Dutch farmers did not follow them up to the high lands, which were dry and unfruitful, but moved forward along the rich country between the edge of the table-land and the Indian Ocean. For many years they met nobody to stop them. The land was empty. But about 1779 they

came across a new race of black men, the Kaffirs, who were strong and warlike, and would not give way before the white settlers. These Kaffirs were also looking for new lands. A long time ago they had lived in Central Africa, but as their numbers grew larger they had moved southwards to look for new

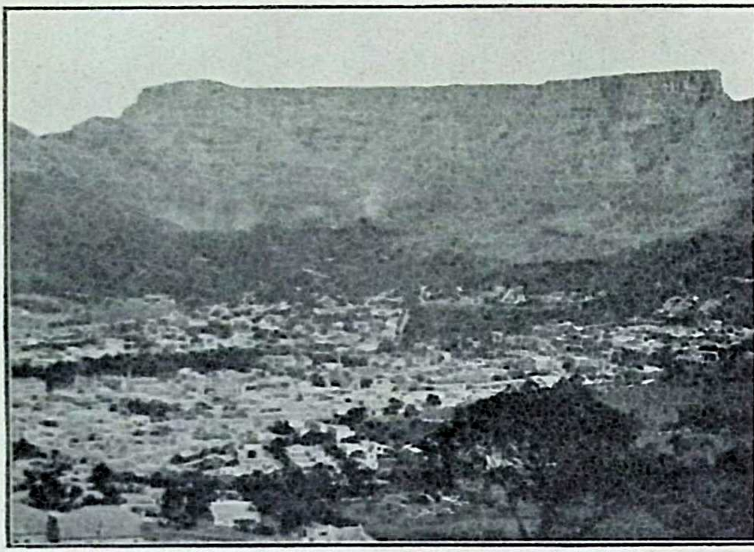


Photo: T. D. Ravenscroft

CAPE TOWN

homes along the east coast, just as the white men had pushed northward for the same reason. When the white farmers met the Kaffirs, war broke out—a war which lasted on and off for a hundred years. The Kaffirs used to raid and steal the cattle of the settlers, and the settlers used to reply by driving the Kaffirs back and seizing some of their land. There were ten



EARLY DUTCH SETTLERS AT THE CAPE

(From a Drawing by Lancelot Speed)

of these Kaffir wars, and the last was fought in 1878, almost exactly a hundred years after the first. In the end the natives were conquered, and white officials were set over them to govern them and see that they kept the peace.

4. But long before this South Africa had become part of the British Empire. You remember that during the French Revolution France conquered Holland in order to use her fleet against England, and so, as soon as the British fleet had by its victories gained command of the sea, it tried to weaken the French by seizing the possessions of their allies. At first the Cape was left alone, but in 1795 a British expedition took Cape Town and declared the country a British possession. In 1802, however, it was given back to Holland by the Treaty of Amiens; but three years later, when war broke out again, it was retaken by the English, and ever since it has been a part of the British Commonwealth.

5. For many years after this Cape Colony remained very peaceable and quiet, until in 1836 an important event took place. This was the Great Trek, when a number of Dutch farmers, with their families and their flocks, crossed over the borders of Cape Colony into the unknown country beyond, to set up an independent State of their own. There were two reasons for this trek. In the first place, the British Parliament had declared a year before that there was to be no more slavery anywhere in the Empire. This was a fine and noble act; but it meant a great loss to many people in South Africa, for the Government did not give them enough money to make up for all the slaves

that were set free. The farmers in Cape Colony were very angry at this, because, in addition to losing their slaves, they found it difficult to obtain people to do the work on the farms. In the second place, the British Government gave back to the Kaffirs some of the lands which the settlers on the frontiers had taken from them, because it thought the natives had been unjustly treated. This also annoyed the white farmers, and they themselves had to look for new lands to take the place of the farms they had lost.

6. So a great band made up their minds to leave their homes and to go off in search of new lands far away from the interference of the Government. These Boer voor-trekkers, as they were called, wandered about exploring all the country up to the Limpopo River in the north of the Transvaal. On their long journey they suffered great hardships, for they were often without food or water, and again and again found themselves at war with native tribes. Their worst adventures were in northern Natal, where they came across the fierce Zulus. The Boer leader, Piet Retief, made a treaty of peace with Dingaan, the chief of the great Zulu tribe. But Dingaan was frightened of the white men, and determined to massacre them. So he treacherously pretended to be friendly, and then suddenly attacked and murdered the whole of Piet Retief's party, and afterwards killed some other white people as well. The rest of the voor-trekkers gathered together, and in the winter of 1838 they utterly defeated Dingaan at Blood River and broke his power.

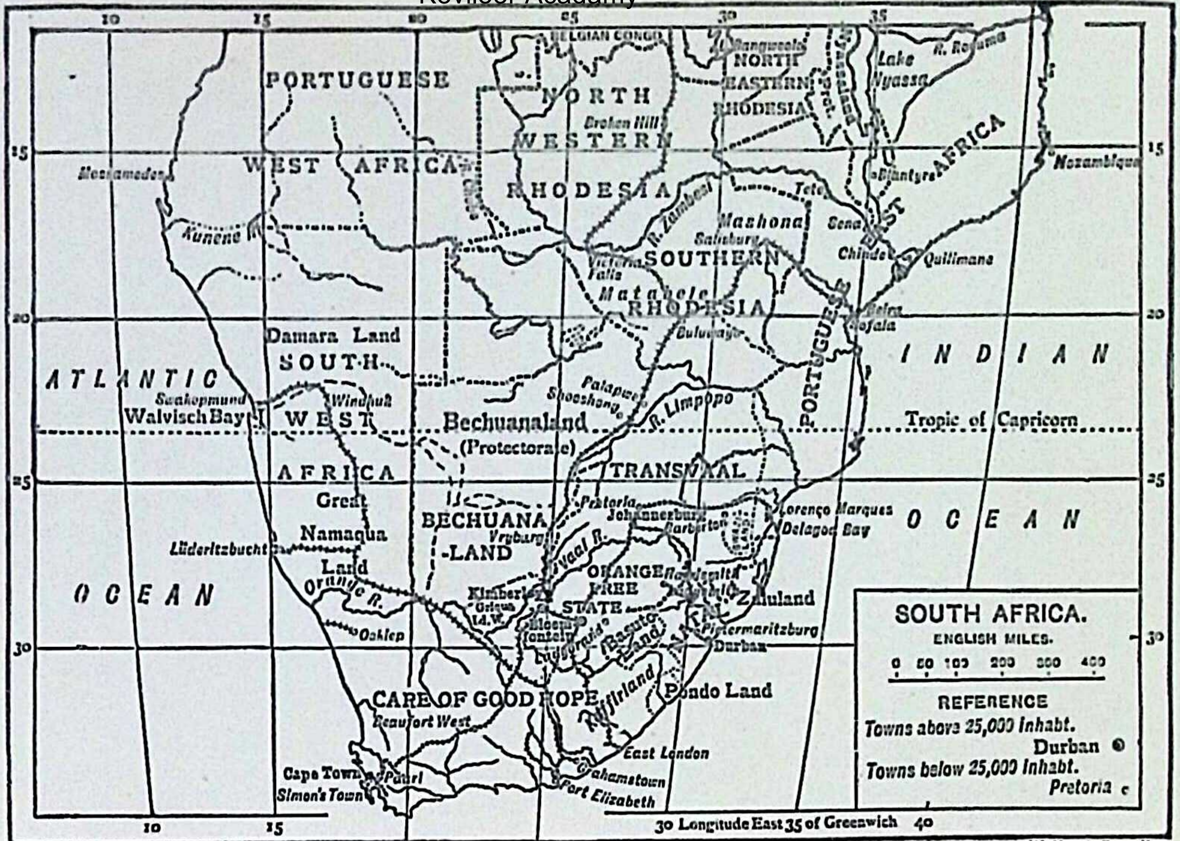
7. A few years later a quarrel broke out between

the Boers and the English traders who had settled at Durban in 1824, and had been trading with the natives ever since. The end of the dispute was that Natal was annexed to the British Crown in 1844, and most of the Boers trekked back to the high veld on the top of the table-land, where they founded the republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State.

CHAPTER XXX

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

1. For some time after the Great Trek, and after Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State had been founded, the white men did not push their borders any farther towards the centre of Africa. Both the Dutch and the British were busy colonising the land they had taken, and keeping down the wild tribes who lived amongst them or on their borders. But the Great Trek had sown the seed of one very great evil, for South Africa was no longer under one government. Two other flags floated there besides the Union Jack, and difficulties began to arise between the different States. Nearly the whole history of South Africa, since 1836, is taken up by attempts to undo the results of the Great Trek. First of all, in 1848, the country which we now call the Orange Free State was annexed to the British Crown; but disputes arose with the Basuto natives, and six years later the British Government gave it up. Then, in 1859, Sir George Grey, whom you will remember as



Walker & Boutall sc.

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Governor of New Zealand, tried to arrange a federation of the different South African States, but in vain; and again, in 1875, Lord Carnarvon made another attempt to unite them, which succeeded no better than the first.

2. Two years later the Transvaal found itself in trouble with the natives, and, as there seemed a danger that it could not stand alone, it was annexed to the British Crown. One of the conditions of the annexation was that responsible government, which had already been given to Cape Colony in 1872, should be set up in the Transvaal also. But the British Governor at that time was an unwise man, and he kept delaying to carry out the promise. At last the Boers grew angry and took to their arms, and in 1881 a battle was fought at Majuba. The British troops were defeated and had to surrender, and the Boers won back their independence.

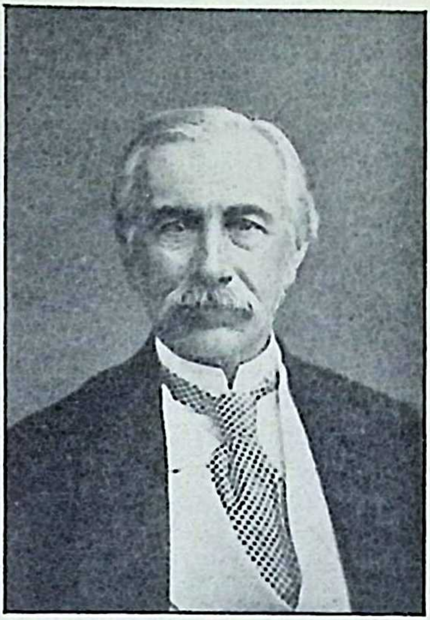


Photo: Elliott & Fry

SIR BARTLE FRERE

(The Governor and High Commissioner sent to the Cape by Lord Carnarvon in 1876)

3. After this war, the quarrel between the British in Cape Colony and the Dutch in the Transvaal and the Orange Free State became very bitter, and all idea of federation had to be given up. Despite the earnest efforts of Cecil Rhodes, the Dutch and the British States drifted steadily apart. Just about this time gold was discovered in the Transvaal, and a great rush of people poured into Johannesburg and the other mining districts from all over the world. This only added to the difficulty, for most of the newcomers were British and they wanted political rights, while the old Boer settlers insisted on keeping political power in their own hands. A revolution was threatened. Gradually things drifted from bad to worse. In 1896 Dr. Jameson and his followers made a raid into the Transvaal to try to set off the revolution and upset the Boer Government, and from that time people began to talk of fighting between the two races. Three years later, after a last fruitless meeting between President Kruger and Sir Alfred Milner, war actually broke out. After three long years of fighting, during which both sides suffered terrible hardships, it ended in the surrender of the Boer armies in 1902.

4. But sad and dreadful as the war was, it brought one great result, for the real root of all the trouble in South Africa was the presence of two rival national ideals represented by two rival flags. After the war the Union Jack waved alone over the whole land to show that it is one country, and a part of the British Commonwealth. In 1906 self-government was restored to the Transvaal, and a year or two later to the Orange Free State, by a British Liberal Government.

In less than seven years from the time when they had been fighting one another, the Dutch and the English met together to see if they could not at last do away with the boundaries that divided South Africa into separate States. The conference, under the inspiration of General Botha, was a great success, and in 1910 the four colonies of Cape Colony, the Transvaal, Natal, and the Orange River Colony joined together in the Union of South Africa. The long division was at an end, for the Dutch and the British then agreed to form together a new nation.

5. But the new Union did not take in the whole of British South Africa. One of the bad results of the old state of disunion was that there was no government in South Africa whose business it was to watch over the interests of the whole land. So in 1884 Germany had been able to annex part of South-west Africa, because neither the British Government nor the Government of Cape Colony would undertake the burden of looking after it. After this there was a real danger that all the country to the north of Cape Colony would fall into the hands of some foreign power. But Cecil Rhodes saw the danger, and he saw, too, how valuable this land might become, so he determined that it should become part of the British Empire. You have probably heard how Cecil Rhodes started life as a digger working in the Kimberley diamond fields, and how, by hard work and perseverance, he made a great fortune and in the end became Prime Minister of Cape Colony. After Germany had seized South-west Africa, he managed, with the help of Dr. Jameson, to win some rights from Lobengula,

King of Matabeleland, the country which lies to the north of the Transvaal. These rights enabled him to form a company to take over the country. Gradually the company grew and spread its influence, until



Photo : W. & D. Downey, London

RT. HON. CECIL RHODES

finally it governed all the vast lands which you see painted red on the map, to the north of the Limpopo River. In 1902 he died and was buried in the Matoppo Hills, in the middle of the country which is called Rhodesia in honour of his name. In 1922–3 the British Government took over control of Northern

and Southern Rhodesia from the Chartered Company, and Southern Rhodesia now enjoys responsible government.

6. There is one great difference we must notice between South Africa and the other great self-

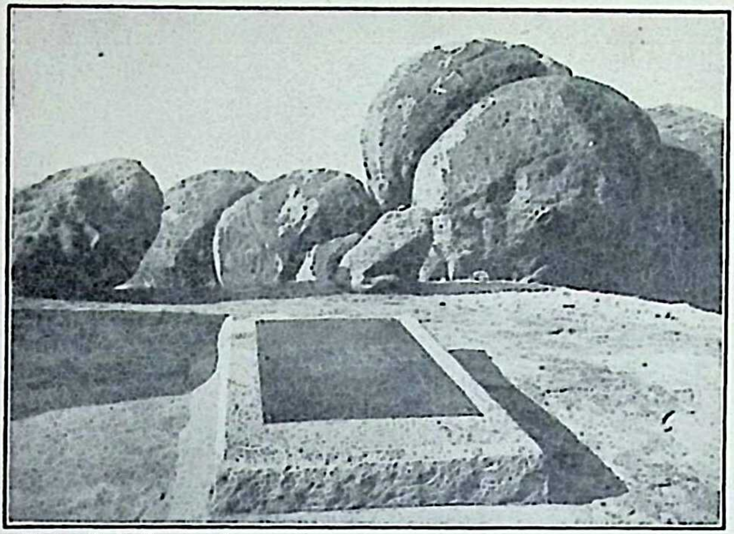


Photo : T. D. Ravenscroft

CECIL RHODES'S GRAVE ON THE MATOPPOS

Inscription on brass plate: "Here lie the remains of Cecil John Rhodes"

governing dominions of the British Commonwealth. South Africa has an enormous native population. Besides about a million and a half of white people, there are about six millions of black people. As we have seen, in the early days the great question was how to subdue the fierce native tribes, so as to prevent

them from attacking the white settlements. But now that danger has almost passed away. But a new difficulty has grown up. Since these natives have come under the British flag, the South African Government has to rule over them, educate them, and protect them from harm. Most of them are still

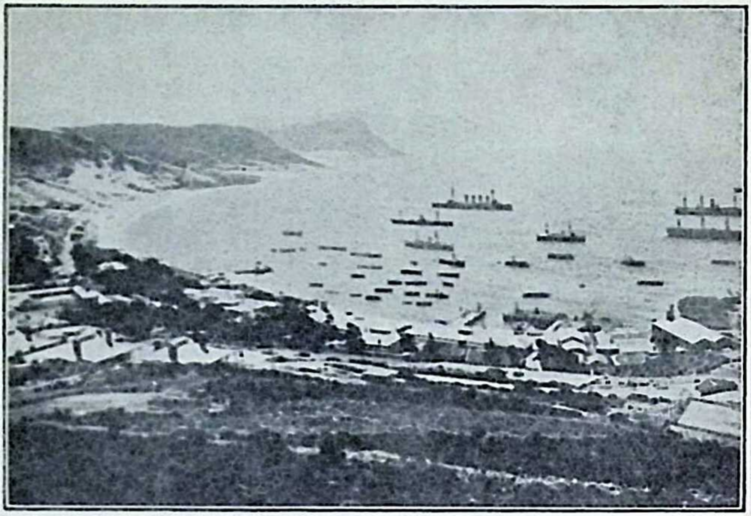


Photo: T. D. Ravenscroft

SIMON'S TOWN BAY

The headquarters of the British fleet in South Africa

uncivilised, and it is difficult to know how to treat them. They are like big children who are always mixing with the "grown-ups" and learning from them, but who are not yet old enough to be able to look after themselves. Yet it is always difficult for an advanced race to deal justly with a backward people in their midst, and the natives often protest that the white

people do not give them proper facilities for development. The great puzzle which South Africa has to answer is how to teach all these millions of natives to become good citizens of South Africa.

7. Once South Africa had settled the quarrels between her different States, and become one country, she began to grow strong and prosperous. She is rich in minerals. The discovery of diamonds and gold brought great numbers of white men to her shores. Also, like Australia and New Zealand, she began to send fruit and corn and other farming products to England, as well as gold and precious stones. Besides this, South Africa is one of the most important naval stations of the Commonwealth. There is a great naval dockyard at Simon's Bay, near Cape Town, where the biggest battleship can gather coal and stores, and be repaired if damaged. For if the Suez Canal were closed, the only way to the eastern parts of the Commonwealth would be round the south of Africa. When the Great War broke out, South Africa played a very notable part. Her troops first conquered German South-west Africa, then they conducted a long campaign in German East Africa, and finally they came to fight among the British forces in the European battlefields.

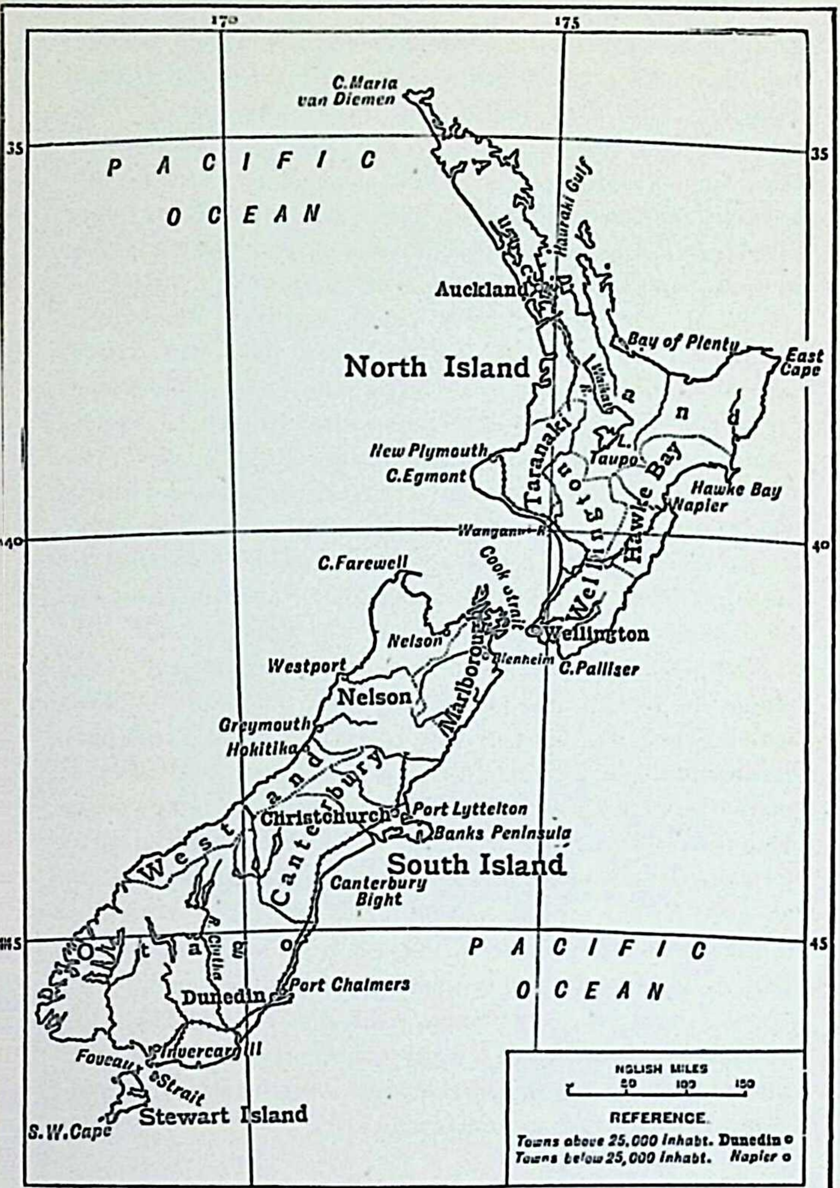
CHAPTER XXXI

THE STORY OF NEW ZEALAND

1. Let us now turn to New Zealand. It is the youngest of England's colonies, and its history begins much later than the history of the rest of the Commonwealth, for at the beginning of the nineteenth century the Union Jack had not even been planted on its shores. It had first been discovered long before; Tasman visited it in 1642, but nobody else landed there for more than a hundred years, and its existence was practically forgotten until, in 1769, Captain Cook discovered it again on one of his voyages in the Australian seas. After that vessels used occasionally to sail to New Zealand to land a few settlers and to trade with the natives. But even as late as 1830 the number of white men there was still very small.

2. New Zealand is made up of two parts—the North Island and the South Island, together with a few other little islands close by. Together they are about the same size as the British Isles. The whole country is very mountainous, and much divided up by arms of the sea, which run far inland; but it is very beautiful, perhaps the most beautiful of all the Dominions of the Commonwealth.

3. Soon after 1830 people came to know how rich the country was, and began to settle in New Zealand in larger numbers. You remember how Wakefield had helped to send out settlers to Australia, and now he helped to send them to New Zealand too. The



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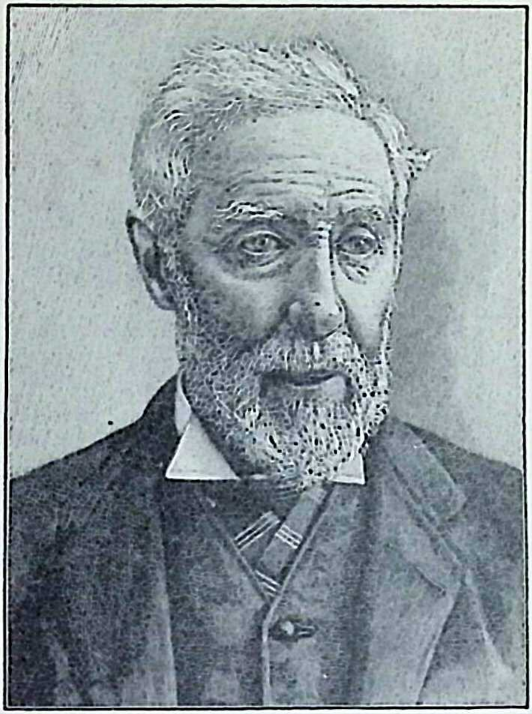
Longmans, Green & Co., London, New York, Bombay & Calcutta

first colonists made their homes in the North Island; but about 1839 the French made a plan for seizing the South Island, and making it a French colony. As soon as the British Government heard of this, they sent an expedition to take possession of it. The expedition was only just in time, for a few days after the Union Jack had been planted there a French ship arrived, only to find that it was too late.

4. For the next twenty years a steady stream of people flowed out to New Zealand. As was natural, as the number of colonists grew they began to claim to be allowed to manage their own affairs, just as the Canadians and the Australians had done. The Governor of New Zealand, Sir George Grey, was a very wise man, and he persuaded the British Government to agree, and in 1853 responsible government was granted, and two years later a parliament was elected to manage the affairs of the country.

5. At the end of 1853, however, Sir George Grey was sent away to be Governor of Cape Colony. This was a great disaster for New Zealand, for in the North Island of New Zealand there were a large number of brown people called Maoris, who were a very brave and intelligent race, and over whom Sir George Grey had great influence. As soon as he left, trouble began to arise. The Maori tribes lived on large tracts of land, where they were governed by their own chiefs. But as the number of the white people increased, they spread more and more across these native lands, until at last the Maoris grew angry, and in 1859, although many attempts had been made to settle the question, war broke out between them.

6. The Maoris were not well armed, but they knew their country, and were very brave fighters, and the war dragged on for eleven years. They defended themselves in cleverly built camps, perched on rocky



SIR GEORGE GREY

places that were difficult to attack. In one of these camps a few Maoris and their wives and children held out for two whole days, with hardly any food or drink, against 1300 men. The British general admired their courage so much that at last he promised to let them

all go free if they would surrender; but they cried out: "We will fight to the end, for ever, for ever, for ever." Then the general begged them to save their wives and children; but they only said, "Maori women fight like Maori men," and would not give in. But they



THE MAORI KING

could not hold out for ever, and at last the camp was taken. In 1870 the war came to an end, and since that date there has been peace. The Maoris were given large tracts of land on which white people are not allowed to settle, and also representation in the New Zealand Parliament, to the two houses of which they now send members.

7. In 1861 gold was found in New Zealand, and

this discovery brought as great changes there as it had done in Australia. As the news of the first big discovery spread, there was a rush of men from all over the world to try and make their fortunes by digging for gold. All these newcomers wanted food



A Maori Village

and clothes, and so the farmers found a market for their meat and corn where before they had none. Once they had supplied all that the miners and townsmen required, they began to send their products across the seas to the British Isles. As a result, to-day New Zealand exports a great amount of frozen meat, and butter and cheese, as well as gold, and her white population has grown to about a million.

8. As soon as New Zealand had become an important country, she began to think about outside affairs and about the place she was going to take in the world, just as the other self-governing Dominions had done. Her people have a firm belief in the strength and greatness of the British Commonwealth. They know that they are a small and weak nation by themselves, and that it is the navy which really protects them from foreign enemies. But they are very far away from England, and so, as long ago as 1884, they began to arrange for their own defence. They bought a small flotilla of ships to protect their coasts, and helped to strengthen the Royal Navy by sending every year to England a gift of money to pay for part of the cost of it. When the South African War broke out, in 1899, a burst of patriotism swept over the whole country, and although the population of New Zealand is very small, they sent ten bodies of soldiers to fight side by side with their British and Canadian and Australian brothers. Again, in 1909, when England's sea-power seemed to be in danger from Germany's great fleet, New Zealand was the first to come to the help of the Mother-country, and offered to give one or, if necessary, two Dreadnought battleships to strengthen the navy. Afterwards it was arranged that New Zealand should buy a Dreadnought cruiser, to be the flagship of the squadron of the Royal Navy which was to sail in New Zealand waters and guard her trade and coasts. And so it was natural when the Great War broke out that New Zealand sent a larger contingent in proportion to her population than any other Dominion, and that the

New Zealand divisions ranked with the very finest troops fighting on the Allied side.

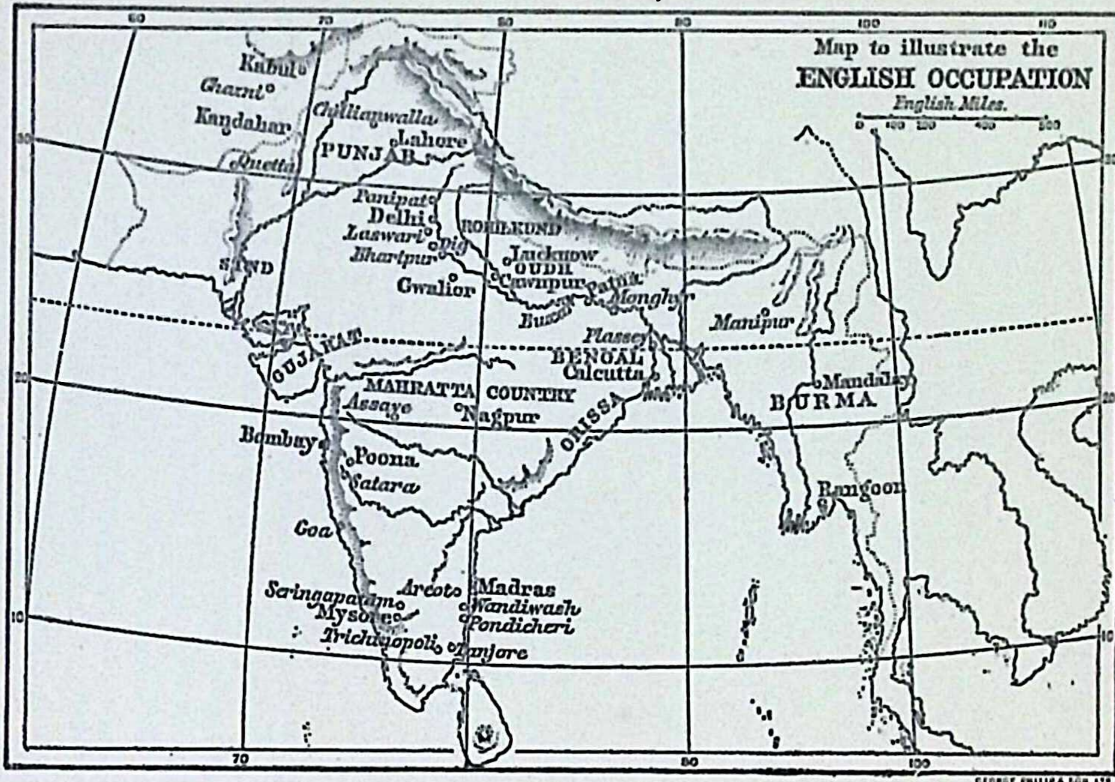
CHAPTER XXXII

INDIA IN THE NINETEENTH AND TWENTIETH CENTURIES

"Not once or twice in our fair island story,
The path of duty was the way to glory:
He, that ever following her commands,
On with toil of heart and knees and hands,
Thro' the long gorge to the far light has won
His path upward, and prevail'd,
Shall find the toppling crags of duty scaled
Are close upon the shining tablelands
To which our God Himself is moon and sun."

TENNYSON.

1. You remember how the English first went to India because of its trade, and how the British East India Company was drawn into war, first with the French, and then, after the Black Hole of Calcutta, with the native princes. Once the Company began to interfere with native affairs it found that it could not stop. After Clive had defeated Siraj-ud-Daulah at the battle of Plassey, he kept some of the land round Calcutta, and made one of Siraj-ud-Daulah's officers vizier over the rest of Bengal, to act as a buffer between the English and the other native princes. A few years later this vizier attacked the English himself; but Clive won another victory, and after that the Company took charge of the government of the whole of Bengal, in order to bring some order into the country and to make sure that Calcutta should not be attacked in the same way again.


Map to illustrate the
ENGLISH OCCUPATION
English Miles.
Kabul
Ghazni
Kandahar
Quetta
Chilliagwalla
Lahore
PUNJAB
Panipat
Delhi
Laswari
Dig
Bharatpur
ROHILKUND
Lucknow
OUDH
Cawnpur
Patna
Monghyr
Buxar
Gwalior
SIND
GUJARAT
Plassey
BENGAL
Calcutta
Manipur
Mandalay
BURMA
MAHRATTA COUNTRY
Assaye
Nagpur
ORISSA
Bombay
Poona
Satara
Rangoon
Goa
Arcot
Madras
Wandiwash
Pondicheri
Seringapatam
Mysore
Trichinopoli
Tanjore
GEORGE PHILIP & SON Ltd

2. Soon afterwards the famous Warren Hastings became Governor. Warren Hastings found that the borders of Bengal were always being raided by the fierce Mahrattas, who lived in the middle of India, and were very aggressive and warlike. So he followed Clive's example and set up a number of native States, to act as buffers round the British possessions. But this plan soon broke down. Either the native princes attacked the British possessions, or else local wars became so threatening that the British Government had to intervene to prevent the trouble from spreading across their own borders. So we find that, from the time of Clive, the British dominion in India went on growing and growing, until at last it covered the whole country. The last steps were taken in 1864 and 1885, when British Baluchistan on the west, and the lower half of Burmah on the east, were annexed, so that the whole country is now walled round by a strong natural frontier of desert, or mountain, or sea.

3. For many years after the French had been driven out of India, the British Government thought no more of the danger of being attacked by a foreign enemy. They were busy settling the affairs of India itself, and they trusted to the navy to protect them. For India is bounded on the north by the Himalayas, which are the highest mountains in the world, and no one imagined that it could be attacked that way. But there is one road across those wild mountains through the passes of Afghanistan, and, in 1837, it was rumoured that the Russians were thinking of invading India by that road. This news caused great dismay, and the danger became serious when the

Amir, the ruler of Afghanistan, was said to be making friends with the Russians. So a British army was sent to take Kabul, the capital of his country. Two years later the Afghans suddenly rose up, and the British had to retreat as quickly as they could, without arms, and in the middle of the winter, back over the snowy mountains to India. Only one man got through. The rest were killed or captured. The next year another army was sent to rescue the prisoners and to prevent the Afghans joining the Russians. Then there was peace for a time, but in 1880 there was more fighting in Afghanistan, and Kabul was taken once more because again a Russian invasion was feared. It was during this war that Lord Roberts made his famous march of over 300 miles in thirty days through the enemy's country from Kabul to Kandahar, where he defeated the Afghans. At last, in 1907, an agreement was made between Russia and England, and Afghanistan was made a buffer state between them.

4. Inside India, British rule has only once been in real danger, and that was in the year 1857. For some time there had been a growing restlessness in the northern parts of the country, round Delhi and Lucknow. Some native princes feared that the English would take away their power, other Indian leaders resented foreign rule, and many of the people thought that the British were going to interfere with their religion. This discontent soon spread to the Sepoys, as the native soldiers in the Indian army were called. There were only 50,000 British troops in the whole country, while the Sepoys numbered over 250,000.

When the Sepoys realised their strength, a great number of them rose suddenly without warning. They murdered their officers, and then marched off to Delhi and set up a feeble old man, who was descended from their Mogul Emperors, as Lord of India. The story is too long to tell here. But if you want to know how first Sir Henry Havelock, and then Sir Colin Campbell and his Highlanders, rescued the heroic defenders of Lucknow; how 8000 British besieged 30,000 Indian troops in Delhi all through the long, hot summer months, and how at last they took the city, you must read the story in another book. In the end the Mutiny was put down, and the British dominion was set up more strongly than before.

5. Now we must learn something about how India was governed. When the East India Company had taken charge of a large part of India, and had millions of Indians for its subjects, scandal and corruption appeared. These were bitterly attacked by Burke in Parliament, and the British Government came to see that a private company could not be allowed to go on managing the affairs of such a great country, and that it must act as trustee for the Indian peoples itself. So bit by bit it took away the control of India from the East India Company, until, after the Mutiny in 1857, the powers of the Company were abolished altogether, and in 1876 Queen Victoria was declared Empress of India.

6. It was Warren Hastings who first began to govern India properly. The old Mogul Empire had broken down. The princes who seized power for themselves were often warlike and cruel. The people were

ground down by heavy taxes and could often not obtain justice, and famines and droughts scourged the land. The country was divided up into hundreds of states and parties, often fighting fiercely among themselves, and robbers and murderers were rife in the land. Warren Hastings saw that the only way of bringing peace and security to the people would be to put a British official at the head of each district to keep order and administer justice to the people. His system has been kept up ever since. About two-thirds of India is governed in this way. The rest is in the hands of Indian princes, who are allowed to manage their own possessions as long as they rule them properly, subject to the sovereignty of the King.

7. British rule has given to India unity, an impartial administration, the reign of law and peace. For India contains 350,000,000 people, divided between two main religions, Hindu and Mohammedan, speaking a dozen main languages, and consisting of as many main races. Two-thirds of it is known as British India, and one-third is governed by over 100 Indian princes. This justice and administration, upon which the prosperity and happiness of the people now depends, would fall into ruins. On the other hand, the long period of British rule has been bearing fruit. The people, who previously had never heard of democracy and had left the control in the hands of hereditary rulers, have begun to absorb the ideas about self-government developed in England and the British Empire. Since the beginning of the twentieth century the demand has sprung up that the Indian people should take an increasing share of the govern-

ment of India on to their own shoulders. This demand grew more insistent when India, like the other parts of the Empire, threw herself into the war against German militarism, and sent great numbers of troops, who fought well and bravely in Europe, Palestine, and Mesopotamia. Accordingly, in August 1917, the British Government made a formal declaration, stating that the ultimate end of British policy in India was the development of responsible government in India. This declaration marked a vital turning-point in the history of India. For a century British rule had been principally concerned in giving peace, good government, education, and the equipment of modern civilisation to India. From this time, however, its purpose was to be the gradual transfer to the hands of the Indian people themselves of the responsibility of the government of the country just in proportion as they seemed ready to assume it. The first practical step in this direction was taken two years later in the passage of an Act creating popularly elected legislatures throughout India, and entrusting to them considerable powers.

CHAPTER XXXIII

OTHER BRITISH POSSESSIONS

1. We have now learnt about the most important parts of the Empire—the British Isles, Canada, Newfoundland, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, and India. As you have seen on the map, there are a great many other British possessions all over the

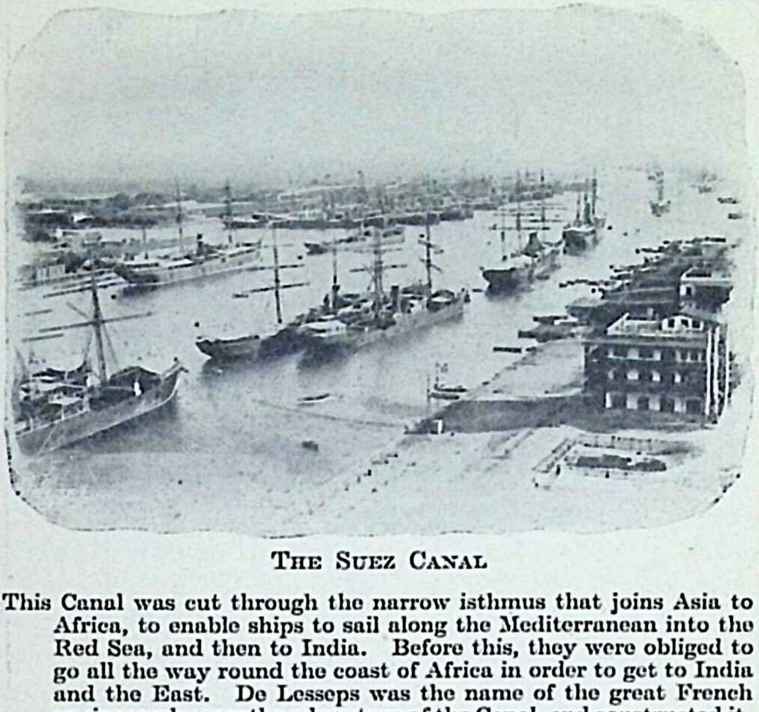
world, so many that there is not room to tell you the history of them all. In this chapter, therefore, we only explain how they came to be parts of the Empire, and what they are like to-day.

Egypt

2. Fifty years ago Egypt was governed by the Khedive Ismail, who was subject to the Sultan of Turkey. This Khedive borrowed a great deal of money from the English and the French, but he governed the country so badly that, in 1876, the English and French Governments had to step in to save their own citizens from losing the money they had lent Ismail. Several attempts were made to reach agreement, but in vain. At last, in 1882, there was a riot in Alexandria, in which many Europeans were killed, and it became necessary to do something drastic to restore good government to the country. So, as France at that time was anxious not to take the responsibility, England was left to settle the question alone. Alexandria was captured; Arabi, the leader of the Egyptians, was defeated at Tel-el-Kebir; and then the British troops took Cairo.

3. After that it was the British who really governed Egypt. But till the Great War they always did so in the name of the Khedive, and through his Egyptian ministers. Under Lord Cromer they set to work to bring in a good system of government, and to improve the state of the country. Before this the people were ground down by cruel taxes, and scourged when they did not pay them. There were no railways or markets, and slavery existed in many places. Before

long the taxes were far lighter, and slavery and scourging were done away with; great dams were built and canals cut, and thousands of square miles changed from dry desert into fertile fields. Railways



THE SUEZ CANAL

This Canal was cut through the narrow isthmus that joins Asia to Africa, to enable ships to sail along the Mediterranean into the Red Sea, and then to India. Before this, they were obliged to go all the way round the coast of Africa in order to get to India and the East. De Lesseps was the name of the great French engineer who saw the advantage of the Canal, and constructed it.

and telegraphs now cover the land. Egypt has become a rich country, and exports much cotton and corn. She is no longer weighed down by intolerable debt, and her people became prosperous as they never were before.

The Sudan

4. The part which England took in the affairs of Egypt led her inevitably into the Sudan, the great stretch of land which lies to the south. In 1879 General Gordon went to carry out an order of the Khedive to put an end to slavery in the Sudan. This made the Arab slave-dealers very angry, and, after Gordon had left the country, a leader called the Mahdi gathered together a wild army of Dervishes and became tyrant of the Sudan. The Dervishes used to wander about, murdering the people and behaving with the most horrible cruelty. At last they became so strong that they surrounded General Gordon, who



Walker & Cockerell sc.

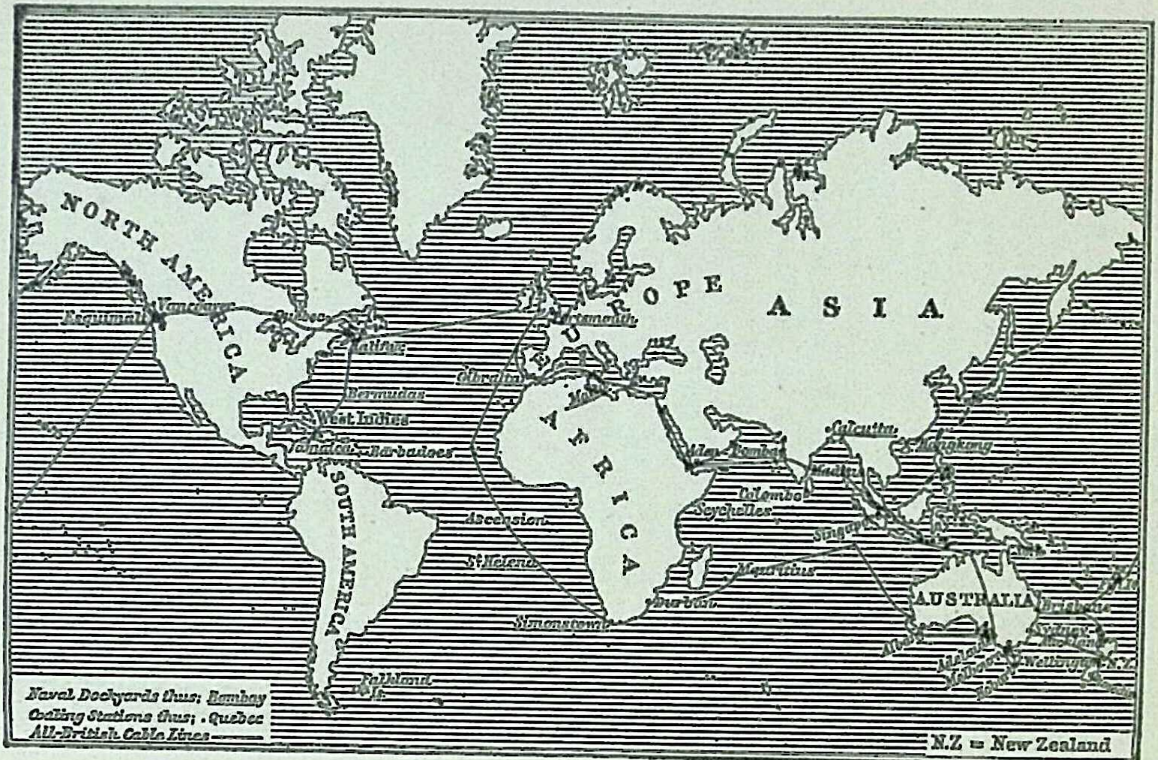
had gone out again to take charge of the troops and to try to restore order, and shut him up in Khartoum. For a long time he held out against them, but the British were slow in helping him, and before they could reach him Khartoum was taken by the Mahdi in 1885, and all its brave defenders were killed.

5. For some time after this the Sudan was left alone. But in 1895 the Mahdi's successor, the Khalifa, began to make preparations for the invasion of Egypt, so an army was sent into the Sudan, under Lord Kitchener, to break his power. A great victory was won at Omdurman, the Khalifa overthrown, and the Sudan was finally brought under joint Egyptian and British authority (1898). The terror of the Dervishes has now disappeared, and the country is growing rich and prosperous under the protection of the British flag.

East and West Africa

6. The Empire has many other possessions in Africa. On the east there are Uganda, Kenya, and Tanganyika, which run from the Sudan on the north to the Indian Ocean near Zanzibar. On the west are North and South Nigeria, the Gold Coast, Sierra Leone, and Gambia. All these are in the tropics. The British first ended war and the slave-trade. That done, they began to train the people and to civilise them, and to build railways, and improve the whole state of the country. This great work is steadily being carried out to-day. A proper system of government is being set up, and the trade of these countries in rubber, gold, tin, copper, and similar things, has

NAVAL DOCKYARDS AND COALING STATIONS AND ALL-BRITISH CABLE LINES



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grown by leaps and bounds. Tanganyika and Nigeria to-day are claimed as model examples of enlightened rule, and the rudiments of self-government have been introduced. But in Kenya difficulties have arisen with the white settlers, and Britain's treatment of the native reserves has led to much controversy.

The West Indies

7. You remember how the West Indian Islands were some of the first of the British conquests. The most important of them are Jamaica, Trinidad, Barbados, the Bahamas, the Windward Islands, and the Leeward Islands. Close by them is British Guiana on the north of South America, and British Honduras in Central America, not far from the Panama Canal. All these places grow quantities of rubber, mahogany, sugar, and tobacco.

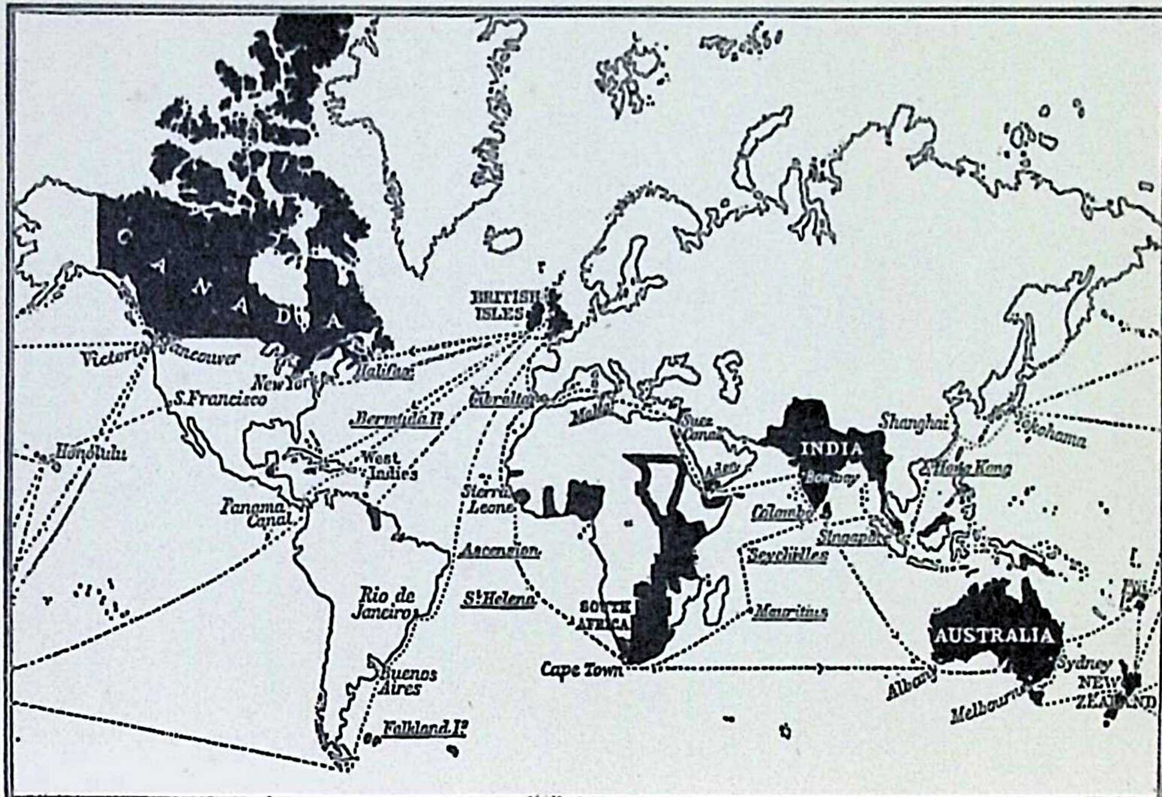
The East Indies

8. The chief British possessions in the Far East are Ceylon at the foot of India, the Straits Settlements, part of the island of Borneo, Hong Kong in China, and a great many little islands in the Pacific Ocean. These places are mostly valuable because of the minerals and the rubber and woods which they export. Singapore is an important naval station, guarding the route to Australia and New Zealand.

Naval Stations

9. You understand now how the Empire stretches all over the world. The only thing that binds it all together is the sea, and unless the British fleet is strong

THE PRINCIPAL TRADE ROUTES OF THE WORLD



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enough to prevent it, any of its parts may be cut off and attacked by some enemy. But a fleet, when it is on a long journey, must be able to pick up stores and water for its crew, and coal and ammunition for its engines and guns, for not even the largest battleship can steam ahead for ever. So some of the most important parts of the Empire are the naval and coaling stations, which are the stopping-places between its different ports. There is a map to show you which these are.

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE GREAT WAR

"One who never turned his back but marched breast forward,
Never doubted clouds would break,
Never dreamed, though right were worsted, wrong would triumph,
Held we fall to rise, are baffled to fight better,
Sleep to wake."

BROWNING.

1. WE have seen that the nineteenth century was a period of internal development and comparative peace for the British Empire. But with the opening of the twentieth century a new time of trial and danger set in for its people. Between the years 1866 and 1870 Bismarck had united the scattered states of Germany into a single empire. He did so by making Prussia predominant in Germany in three successful wars—the first against Denmark, the second against Austria, and the third against France. The Prussian State, however, was founded upon the belief that in the last resort what kept a community united and law-abiding

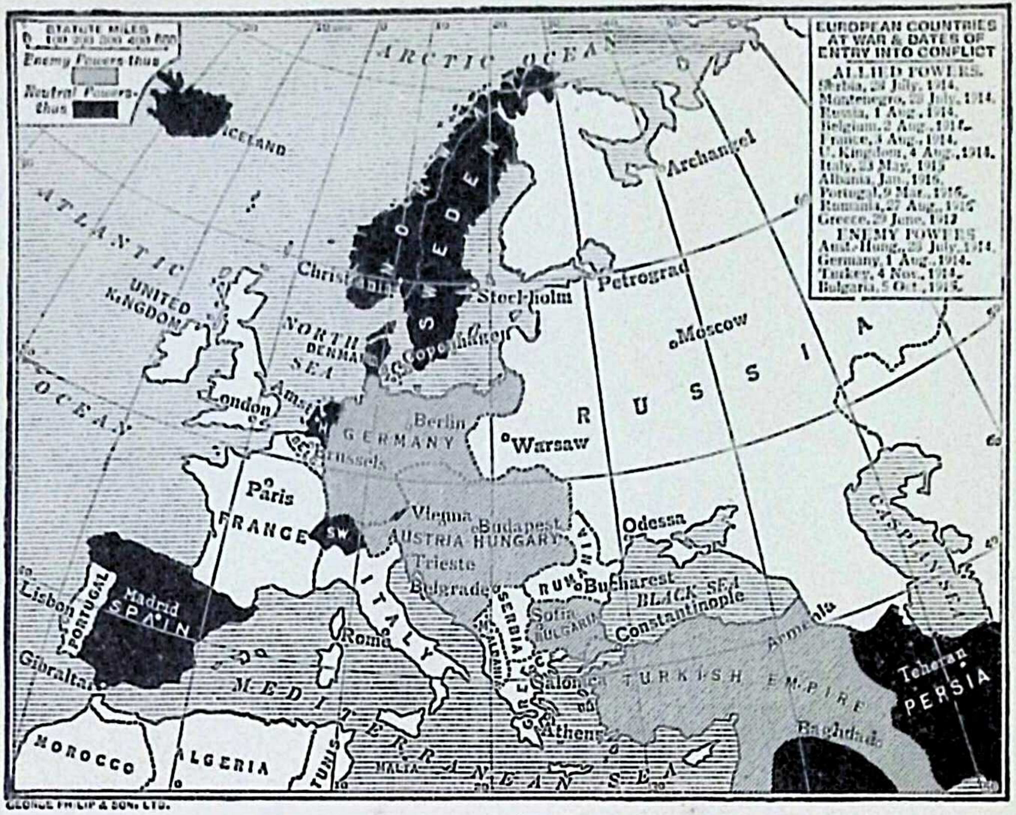
was not so much a voluntary sense of community but force ruthlessly used by an autocratic government. So, as he said himself, the new German Empire was founded on "blood and iron," that is to say, on the authority of an hereditary Kaiser supported by the conscription of all the citizens into an immense army bound to obey his will.

2. For thirty years the German Government was busy in strengthening the new State and making it rich. But by the beginning of the present century it became dissatisfied and began to think of extending its power in Europe and the outside world. Kaiser William II. became the special champion of this policy, and especially of building up a great navy, with which to force Britain and other countries to give him concessions across the seas. The result of this steady growth in the German army and navy, and of constant attempts by Germany to settle international problems according to its own will by threats of war, was the formation of the *entente* whereby Great Britain ranged herself alongside France and Russia for the purpose of resisting German aggression. Europe became divided into two armed camps and rapidly drifted towards war. Each great Power was busy arming itself, none more so than Germany. As the tension grew greater, the Kaiser prepared to achieve the supremacy of his country in Europe by rapid victory should war come. The ideas which autocratic Germany upheld were an inherent right to challenge British aspirations for free government. Thus the future of the British Commonwealth became involved in that of Europe.

3. The assassination of the heir to the Austrian throne by a Bosnian precipitated a crisis which, in the diplomatic tension caused by recent events, it proved impossible to solve by peaceful means. Once it became clear that war was inevitable, Germany put into operation her plan for establishing her ascendancy in Europe by first annihilating the French Army and then the Russian. On 4th August 1914, when it had become clear that Germany intended to tear up her guarantee of Belgian neutrality and invade Belgium in order to overwhelm France, war was formally declared against Germany by Great Britain.

4. It would take too long to describe here the course of the great struggle. Briefly, in 1914 the great German attack in the West was arrested by the French at the battle of the Marne, fought on 6th September, in which seven divisions of the British regular army—the "Old Contemptibles" as they were called—played an immortal part; and was finally broken at the first battle of Ypres, fought at the end of October, where the British, gallantly assisted by the French, closed the road of advance to the Channel ports. During this autumn, too, Turkey joined Germany, and so closed the communications between Russia and the Western Allies.

5. In 1915, while the British Empire was straining every nerve to create new armies and to manufacture munitions, the German allies totally defeated the Russian armies and rolled them back far into Russia. As against this, however, Italy decided in the spring to throw in her lot with the Allies. So far as the British Empire was concerned, most of the fighting



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MAP OF THE WAR IN EUROPE

during this year took place at Gallipoli, where British forces, including the famous Anzac contingents from Australia and New Zealand, vainly endeavoured to open the road to Russia through the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus. Late in the autumn, after the failure of the second attempt to force the straits, Bulgaria joined the German alliance. German and Austrian troops then overran Serbia in order to link up with Bulgaria and Turkey; and British and French troops, leaving the Dardanelles, occupied Salonica in order to prevent Germany seizing Greece and its harbours in the Mediterranean.



Photo: Russell & Sons

LORD BEATTY

6. In the following year there were three principal events. First was the great German attempt to defeat the French Army by an intense offensive against Verdun — perhaps the most fiercely contested battle of the war—in which, after more than six months' continuous fighting, the French were finally completely successful in beating off the attack. Second was the Battle of Jutland, fought on 31st May–1st June 1916, which vindicated the supremacy of the British Navy, and its power to maintain a blockade

of Germany. And third was the British offensive on the Somme, which, though not fully successful in breaking the German line, relieved the pressure on Verdun, exhausted greatly the Germans, and proved the splendid quality of the new armies raised and trained in Britain and the Dominions during the preceding year.

7. During the spring of 1917 the Germans and Austro-Hungarians overran Rumania, which had joined the Allies in the preceding autumn; but the effect of the Somme battle was seen in the withdrawal of the German armies in the West to the shorter Hindenburg Line in the early spring. On the other hand, on 1st February the German submarine campaign was begun, whereby Germany hoped to force the Allies to give in by sinking all vessels bringing supplies and food-stuffs from overseas. This was followed by two events of great importance. On 8th March the Russian revolution broke out, and on 2nd April the United States declared war on Germany and joined the Allies. The military history of the year was chiefly occupied by a series of offensives—a Franco-British attack in April, and two British attacks later on in the year at Messines and on the Passchendael Ridge, none of which was successful in breaking through the German line. Late in the year the Germans organised an assault on the Italian lines at Caporetto and drove the Italian Army back to the River Piave on the Italian plains. On the other hand, a British army under General Allenby defeated the Turks and recovered Palestine for Christendom.

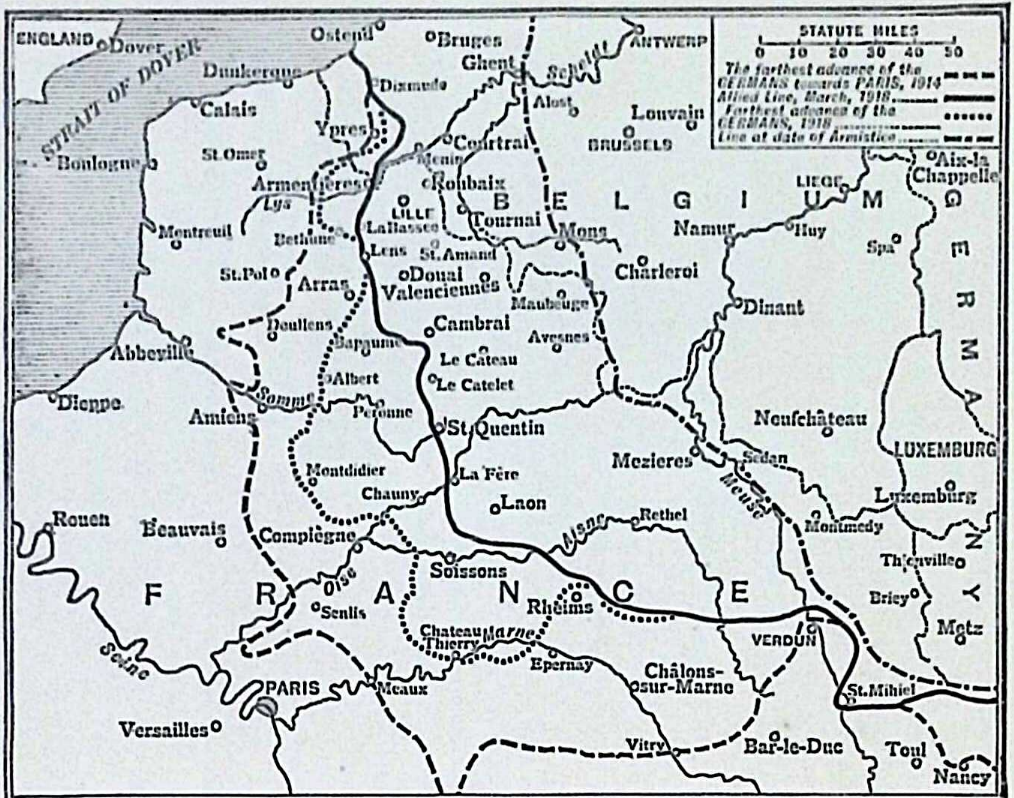
8. In 1918 the great struggle finally came to a

head. Profiting by the gradual disintegration of the Russian Army by the Bolshevik revolutionaries, and hoping to destroy the Allied armies before the American Army was trained and transported to Europe, the German military leaders threw their whole strength against the British Army on 21st March. They hoped to drive a wedge to the sea between the British and the French armies. For a few weeks the issue hung in doubt, but finally the indomitable tenacity of the British armies brought the German offensive to a standstill. Meanwhile, Marshal Foch had been made Commander-in-Chief of all the Allied armies, and the American troops were being raced over to Europe. The Germans made one or two further attacks, but by 17th July Marshal Foch was ready with his counter-offensive and began that series of operations which never ceased until the Germans were forced to crave for an Armistice, concluded on 11th November, and the Allied armies occupied the bridgeheads across the Rhine. Earlier in the autumn General Allenby had finally defeated the Turks, the Allied armies had overthrown the Bulgarians, and the


Photo: Meley

MARSHAL FOCH

THE WESTERN FRONT 1914–1918



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Italians, assisted by British and French troops, had overwhelmed the Austro-Hungarian Army. So that by the date of the German collapse the whole enemy combination was prostrate on the ground.

9. Early in 1919 the leaders of the Allies, M. Clemenceau for France, Mr Lloyd George for Great Britain, President Wilson for the United States, Signor Orlando for Italy, and a host of other plenipotentiaries representing the Dominions and half the nations of the world, assembled in Paris to draw up the Peace.



Photo : Bassano

LORD HAIG

Only Russia, which was still in the hands of the Bolsheviks and in the throes of civil war, was not represented. After much negotiation among the victorious Allies Germany was forced to sign the peace on 28th June, by which she promised to return Alsace-Lorraine to France, to agree to the creation of an independent Poland with Danzig as a free port, not to get back her colonies, to reduce her army and navy to a very small size, to undertake to pay reparation to the utmost of her power for the damage she had caused to those she had injured, and to station no troops

in the Rhineland. The Austro-Hungarian Empire disappeared, and the states of Rumania, Czecho-Slovakia, Austria, Jugo-Slavia, and Hungary took its place. Bulgaria was reduced in size, and Turkey was deprived of all communities which it had formerly governed of non-Turkish race. As the crown of the whole peace settlement, the League of Nations was brought into being as the means of settling international disputes by consultation in which reason and fair play could have full scope, instead of by war. Finally, the Peace Conference decided to leave the German colonies to France, Japan, and the nations of the British Empire who had taken them during the war, but under mandates which required them to see that their inhabitants were properly governed and educated, and their resources developed.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH AND THE WAR

"O living will that shalt endure
 When all that seems shall suffer shock,
 Rise in the spiritual rock,
Flow thro' our deeds and make them pure,

That we may lift from out of dust
 A voice as unto him that hears,
 A cry above the conquer'd years
To one that with us works, and trust,

With faith that comes of self-control,
 The truth that never can be proved
 Until we close with all we loved,
And all we flow from, soul in soul."

TENNYSON, *In Memoriam.*

1. THE Great War of 1914–19 was the fifth of the struggles which England had fought to preserve British ideals of freedom against the attacks of the great autocracies of Europe. The first was the war against Philip II. of Spain and the Spanish Armada in 1588. The second was against Louis XIV., and ended with the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The third dragged out during the middle of the eighteenth century, also against France; and the fourth was the war against Napoleon, of which the two principal battles were Trafalgar by sea in 1805, and Waterloo on land in 1815. Each of them ended in the failure of the attempt of the Continental Power to establish its dominion over Europe or to crush England's liberty by wresting from her the command of the sea. So it was in this case also. Germany failed to establish a despotism over Europe, and failed also, both at the Battle of Jutland and by the submarine campaign, to take away from Britain the command of the seas.

2. But there was one difference between this last struggle for liberty and the earlier ones which we must notice. During the four preceding wars England had fought only with foreign allies. In this she had the whole-hearted and single-minded support of all the other peoples making up the Empire. No sooner did Britain take up, on 4th August 1914, the challenge to liberty thrown down by Germany than the whole British Commonwealth sprang to arms like one man. Each of the Dominions raised national armies which rapidly won renown in the sternest battlefields of the war—Canada at Ypres, Vimy, and in the last great

thrust of 1918; Australia and New Zealand at Gallipoli, on the Somme, and throughout 1918; South Africa in German West and East Africa, as well as in France. Indian troops, too, fought with great courage and success in Europe, Mesopotamia, and Palestine. The total effort made by the peoples of the British Commonwealth in the Great War may be seen when it is realised that, roughly, enlistments were as follows:—

Regular Army and Territorial Forces on 4th August 1914 . . .	$\frac{3}{4}$ million
Afterwards recruited—	
Great Britain	5 million
The Dominions	$1\frac{1}{4}$ million
India	$1\frac{1}{4}$ million

Altogether some eight and a half million (including other native races) fought for the Empire.

3. Throughout the whole struggle the British Empire played a leading part. The British Navy had the task of watching the German Navy and preventing it from coming out to hinder supplies coming to the Allies across the seas. It had also to defeat the very serious submarine campaign against merchant shipping. Though it fought no very decisive action save the Battle of the Falkland Islands, when the German Pacific squadron was destroyed, it accomplished both tasks with complete success, and at the end of the war its superiority at sea was more unchallenged than at the beginning. On land, though the brave and gallant French people bore the heaviest losses and had the hardest fighting, the British armies carried most

of the burden in the latter part of the war, and Marshal Foch said that it was the hammer strokes of the armies of the Empire which broke the German resistance in 1918. In this war, too, for the first time, women played an invaluable and heroic part, as nurses, in auxiliary corps, and in making munitions. Altogether the Empire lost nearly a million men in dead, who were willing to lay down their lives that future generations might have freedom and happiness and life more abundantly.



LORD KITCHENER

4. Let us now consider the effects of the Great War upon the Empire. The promptitude with which the Dominions entered the war, the great armies they raised, and the victories and reputation they gained in the war, all served to prove that the four younger nations of the Commonwealth—Canada, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand—which for more than fifty years had been growing up in peace behind the shield of Great Britain and the Navy, had now become nations themselves. They had proved their title to equality with Great Britain in the conduct of the Commonwealth's affairs. This was recognised in the meetings of the Imperial War Cabinet in the

summer of 1917, in which the Prime Ministers of the Dominions sat with the leading British Ministers as the supreme body directing Imperial policy. And it was recognised still more clearly at the Peace Conference, when the Prime Ministers of all the nations of the Commonwealth sat together as the British Peace Delegation, and when Canada, Australia, South Africa, and New Zealand became members of the League of Nations in their own right. For some time after the war the new relations which had come into existence between Great Britain and the Dominions were undefined. In 1926, however, the Imperial Conference set itself to formulate the new position. The British Empire was officially renamed the British Commonwealth of Nations, and the Dominions were recognised as fully autonomous members of that Commonwealth, each completely free in its own internal affairs, voluntarily co-operating to formulate a common foreign policy, but acknowledging the same king. This new situation was finally crystallised in the Statute of Westminster of 1931.



Press Portrait Bureau

General Smuts

5. But the war led to the appearance of a new Dominion. Ireland had never accepted union in the British Parliament in 1800. Misgovernment by British officials in Ireland had kept alive an intense demand for the restoration of an Irish Parliament. Ireland, too, was a Mother-country, like England, for immense numbers of emigrants had gone from Irish shores to the United States and the Dominions. In 1916 a small group of Irishmen raised the standard of rebellion. It was speedily crushed. But after the war was over, the Sinn Fein Party swept the country, except in Protestant Ulster, and set up a rival Irish Government. For a time there was a bitter "war" between the English and Sinn Fein. But in 1921 wiser counsels prevailed, a treaty was signed, and Southern Ireland, renamed the Irish Free State, recovered her Parliament and became a Dominion. The six counties of Ulster remained part of Great Britain with representatives in the British Parliament.

6. The war also had a great effect in promoting self-government in other parts of the Empire. They threw themselves into the struggle with courage and enthusiasm. Great armies of volunteers were raised in India, and almost all other parts of the Empire—Egypt, the West Indies, East and West Africa, and the Far Eastern settlements—sent men to fight or labour for the cause of freedom. Accordingly, after the war was over it came to be seen more clearly than before that the purpose of the British Commonwealth was not merely to maintain order and justice and good government among the more backward peoples, but

to enable them to govern themselves. In other words, the British Empire was a school of self-government for its members as well as a protector of their liberty. So in 1919 a beginning was made in India, and an Act was passed introducing the beginning of responsible government there, and providing that, as a first stage towards self-government, some of the responsibility for government should be transferred to the shoulders of the Indian people.

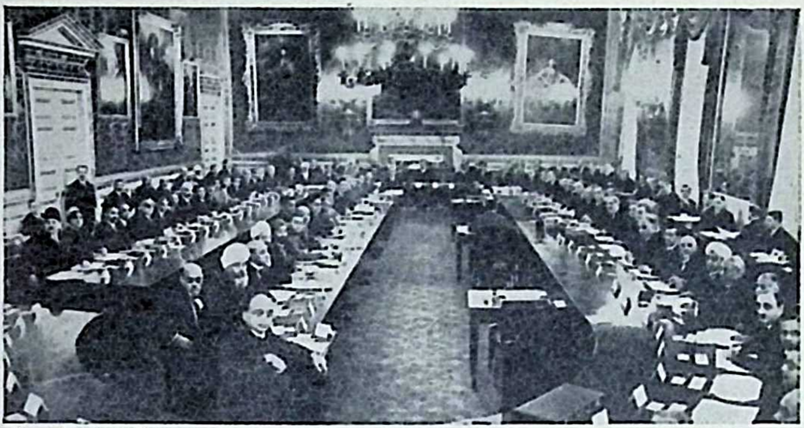


Press Portrait Bureau

MR GANDHI

7. But the Act did not satisfy the most nationalist section in India. The Congress party, led by Mahatma Gandhi, inaugurated a campaign of non-violent civil disobedience to compel the speedy withdrawal from India of British rule. The campaign was unsuccessful in its main object, because the size and population of India and the variety of the peoples, languages, religions within it and the existence of the Indian princes made any such speedy solution of the problem of self-government impractical. But in 1930 a new attempt was made to work out a constitution at a Round Table Conference attended both by Indians and British. After long debate and another attempt

by Congress to end the negotiations by a renewal of civil disobedience, the new constitution came into being in 1936. It enfranchises some 36 million Indians. It gives practically complete autonomy to the ten provinces, and sets up an Indian federal legislature to which the princes send representatives, subject to the retention by the Viceroy and Governors



Press Portrait Bureau

The Indian Round Table Conference, 1930

of certain powers of intervention in the event of serious misgovernment.

8. There has been a similar development elsewhere. A few years after the war a constitution was granted to Ceylon. In 1936 Burma was separated from India and given the same powers of self-government as India. In various parts of Africa and the West Indies there has been progress in the same direction.

9. Though Egypt had, in fact, been largely under British control since 1882, it was nominally a province

of the Turkish Empire. At the outbreak of war it was declared a British Protectorate; but in 1922, largely as the result of the nationalist movement led by Zaghlul Pasha, it was recognised as an independent sovereign state entitled to rule itself through its own King and Parliament, subject to an agreement being made with Great Britain safeguarding British communications through the Suez Canal, ensuring the defence of Egypt against foreign attack, and dealing with the Sudan. But difficulties ensued, and it was not until 1936 that the final treaty of alliance between Egypt and Britain was signed.

10. There was one other effect of the war which we must notice before we close this chapter. We remember how the English-speaking world was split in two by the American Revolution of 1776. The Great War of 1914 began the process of reconciliation. The United States had absorbed so many of the peoples of Europe as immigrants that it took time for her to make up her mind as to what she ought to do in the war. But once she had decided to join the Allies, in 1917, she threw herself into the task with tremendous energy and success. By the end of the war, barely eighteen months after she had entered it, she had 2,000,000 troops in Europe, and it was the presence and fighting strength of these troops which enabled Marshal Foch to turn the German tide and made possible the decisive victory of 1918. Thus the war brought America back into contact with the world's affairs, and directly she did so we find America and Great Britain fighting side by side. It could not be otherwise, for fundamentally the two peoples have

the same ideas of justice, freedom, democracy, and progress.

11. Finally, the war increased still further the responsibilities of the Commonwealth. No new territories were annexed, but mandates for important areas were granted to the various nations of the Commonwealth. Thus Great Britain received the mandate for Mesopotamia (Iraq) and Palestine, and also for Tanganyika and a small strip of German colonial territory in West Africa. Australia received a mandate for the German islands in the South Pacific, except Samoa, which was entrusted to New Zealand; and South Africa was given control of German South-West Africa. Thus for the first time the new nations of the Commonwealth began to take their share of the task of bringing the benefits of education, civilisation, and prosperity to their more backward brethren. In 1930, however, the mandate over Mesopotamia was relinquished, and Iraq became an independent state and a member of the League. Palestine is still held subject to the duty of providing there a National Home for the Jews.

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE FOUNDATIONS OF THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH

"It is not to be thought of that the flood
Of British freedom, which, to the open sea
Of the world's praise, from dark antiquity
Hath flowed, 'with pomp of waters, unwithstood,'
Roused though it be full often to a mood
Which spurns the check of salutary bands,
That this most famous Stream in bogs and sands
Should perish; and to evil and to good
Be lost for ever. In our halls is hung
Armoury of the invincible knights of old:
We must be free or die, who speak the tongue
That Shakespeare spake; the faith and morals hold
Which Milton held. In everything we are sprung
Of Earth's first blood, have titles manifold."

WORDSWORTH.

1. At the beginning of this little book we saw that the foundations of the greatness of Britain lay partly in its geographical position and partly in its institutions. We saw how, behind the protection of the sea, they had been able to develop a free system of government while the peoples of the Continent had been harried by wars and tyrannous kings. We saw how they secured justice for the individual by inventing the system of trial by jury, and gradually transferred political power from the King into the hands of a Parliament elected by the people themselves. We saw finally how the colonists from Great Britain had taken these ideas of justice and liberty and democracy to their new lands and built up communities based upon them overseas, and how the rulers and officials

sent out by Britain to govern the backward peoples took the same ideas of political and individual freedom with them and applied them as best they could to the different conditions in India and elsewhere.

2. The British Commonwealth, therefore, has been founded upon certain great principles of justice and equality and liberty in which its peoples have had faith. Though they have made mistakes and lapses at times, it has been their fidelity to these principles which has brought them into conflict from time to time with the great autocratic empires of Europe, and which has led them to some of their greatest achievements. It led them also to abolish slavery. In 1807 it was made a crime for any British sailor to take part in the cruel slave trade, and in 1833 all slaves throughout the British Dominions were declared free. This example has since been followed by the whole civilised world. Similarly it led them, for the first time in history, to govern the dependencies of the Empire, not primarily in their own interest but as trustees for the peoples themselves. Britain has never raised taxes from her possessions, and great numbers of men and women have devoted their lives—as civil servants, missionaries, and doctors—to civilising and administering the backward peoples living under the Union Jack, so that in time they should learn to govern themselves.

3. As a consequence of the principles on which it rests, the British Commonwealth is perhaps the most remarkable political structure in the world. It contains

about 450,000,000 people—a quarter of the whole population of the globe. It contains peoples of every type of civilisation, from the progressive Western democracies through the ancient but rapidly changing civilisations of the East to the still primitive peoples of Africa. It contains members of nearly all the races and religions of the world. Yet it is able to keep the peace among them all, to give an expanding liberty and opportunity to the individual, to extend self-government to all who are ready to exercise it, and training in self-government to those who are not, and finally to protect them from foreign attack and oppression. It is thus one of the greatest forces for peace, freedom, unity, and progress in the world, and its collapse would be a calamity for mankind.

4. But during the fifteen years which followed the armistice the bright promise evoked by the allied victory began to fade away. The hopes created by the League of Nations were not fulfilled. The United States failed to join it. Japan and Germany left it. It proved unable either to make those revisions in the treaties which seemed necessary to meet changing conditions and ensure peace, to prevent aggression, or to bring about disarmament. As an instrument for preserving perpetual peace it has not yet succeeded, whether because the nations have been unwilling to abate any part of their sovereignty or because of defects in its constitution, history will determine. Though time and space have been steadily contracted by new inventions such as the aeroplane and the radio, the world has found, as yet, no cure for war, and if another general war does come, it is likely to become

more world-wide than the last. On the other hand, a new issue has made its influence felt among men. As we have seen, the development of the British Empire hitherto has been largely concerned with the growth of political freedom, with making secure individual liberty and self-governing institutions. To-day, owing to the Communist revolution in Russia and to the rise of Labour and Socialist parties in all the democracies, people are asking whether the economic organisation of society cannot be improved so as to assure employment for all who want to work, to lessen the inequalities in wealth, and to diminish the risk of war and poverty which springs from excessive competition. No one can tell where the reviving menace of war in a shrinking world and the rise of Communism and its opposite Fascism are going to lead us. But it seems clear that a new age and new issues are arising to confront the peoples of the Empire quite different from those of the past.

5. But that need not cause us dismay. All great things are accomplished through effort, and often through suffering. A new era of greatness may be opening up for the peoples of the Empire and the world. Whether that will be so will depend mainly upon the character of the people themselves and upon the wisdom with which they deal with new conditions. Every nation is the outward and visible expression of the thoughts and acts of the people. If the peoples of the Commonwealth love justice and freedom and fair play as they have done in the past, if they place their ideals before wealth or personal glory or ease, if they are inspired by a genuine zeal to work hard to

make the world a better place for others as well as themselves to live in, if they are willing to give up bad habits and outworn traditions where the common good clearly calls, then there is no doubt that the ultimate outcome will be for the good of all. But there is no easy road to greatness, nobility, or happiness. The price of liberty is eternal vigilance. And if the British Commonwealth is to continue to stand in the vanguard of human progress it will only be because all its citizens continue to show, under new conditions, the spirit which has served them well in the past.

"You that have faith to look with fearless eyes
Beyond the tragedy of a world at strife
And trust that out of night and death shall rise
The dawn of ampler life:

Rejoice, whatever anguish rend your heart,
That God has given you, for a priceless dower,
To live in these great times and have your part
In Freedom's crowning hour;

That you may tell your sons who see the light
High in the heaven, their heritage to take:—
'I saw the powers of darkness put to flight!
I saw the morning break!'"

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Sir Owen Seaman.

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